

For OCTOBER, 1791.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

pher, whose sole object has been to promote the cause of virtue, and the interests of society, two things intimately connected, is suffered to remain in oblivion. This, however, has not been the case with the worthy character whose memoirs form the subject of the following pages; and who, though he neither enriched his country by the spoils of the East, nor added to its territorial possessions by conquest, has left in his writings, and particularly in that part of them which was intended to support the Christian religion, a monument more durable than the sculptured marble, ornamented with all its gaudy trophies. The respectable editor* to whom he consigned the care of his literary papers, with a desire that he would collect together all his works and superintend the publication of them, has paid a

* Charles Nalfon Cole, Esq.

just tribute to friendship by prefixing to them a well written sketch of his life; and we with great pleasure embrace this opportunity of acknowledging the source from which we have derived our information.

Soame Jenyns was born at twelve o'clock at night, in Great Ormond Street, in London, in the Year 1703-4. The hour of his birth he used often to mention, observing, in his pleasant manner, that he considered himself at liberty to chuse his birth day; and that, as he preferred the birth of the year to the day of its death, he had chosen New Year's Day, which in all civilized countries is celebrated as a day of general festivity. He would say, likewise, that this circumstance attending his birth made him often laugh at the solemn manner in which biographers record the events that happen at the birth of those whose lives they undertake to write; for though he was born in the moment of controversy, yet of all subjects in which the learned engaged that was to him the most disagreeable.

His father, Sir Roger Jenyns, Knt. was descended from the ancient and respectable family of the Jenyns, of Churchill, in Somersetshire; one of whom, about the middle of the sixteenth century, by an intermarriage with a coheirless of the Rowlet family, became possessed of Sandridge, in the county of Hertford. About the middle of the last century, a younger branch of this family settled in Cambridgeshire, which county was represented in three parliaments by John, the elder brother of Sir Roger, whose residence in the country was at Ely, in the Isle of Ely, where he spent much of his time in being serviceable to his neighbours. The mother of our author was one of the daughters of Sir Peter Soame, of Hayden, in the county of Essex, baronet. She was a woman of great beauty, and possessed an excellent understanding, which she had improved by reading,

much beyond what was the fashion of those times in the education of the daughters of gentlemen. As she was well instructed in the principles of religion, she manifested her belief in them by her life as well as conversation, and these excellent qualities were still heightened by the greatest politeness of manners. Under such a mother our author was brought up till the time arrived when it was necessary to consign him over to the care of a tutor. In this quality the Rev. Mr. Hill was introduced into the family, and he received his pupil possessed of all that knowledge, and initiated in all those principles of virtue and religion, which at that early period the infant mind is capable of, or ought to receive.

Young Jenyns continued some time under the care of this gentleman, who taught him the first rudiments of language, and he was afterwards instructed in various branches of knowledge by the Reverend Stephen White, who remained with him till it was necessary to finish his education by removing him to one of the universities. As his father had purchased Bottisham Hall, in the village of Bottisham, where he resided with his family; and as this place was not far distant from Cambridge, he was placed there at St. John's College, into which he was admitted a fellow-commoner in the year 1722, under Dr. Edmondson, then one of the principal tutors of that college.

While he resided at Cambridge, which he did for nearly three years, except at those times set apart for vacations, he pursued his studies with great industry and assiduity. His behaviour was most orderly and regular; and the discipline of the college was so far from being disagreeable to his natural inclination, that he was often heard to say, after he left the university, that he accounted the days he had lived there amongst the happiest of his life.

From

From the time he left Cambridge his residence, in winter, was in London, and, in the summer, in his father's family, as long as he lived. His pursuits were chiefly literary; and though his name was not put to his *Art of Dancing*, published in 1727, and inscribed to Lady Fanny Fielding, yet the author was soon discovered; and that poem was considered as a happy preface of what might afterwards be expected from him. Soon after his father's death, at the general election in 1742, he was unanimously chosen one of the members for the county of Cambridge; from which time he sat in parliament till the year 1780, representing, during these thirty-eight years, either the county, or the borough of Cambridge, except for four years, when on the call of a new parliament, in 1754, he was returned for the borough of Dunwich, in Suffolk; but on Lord Dupplin's going up to the house of Lords, he vacated his seat by the acceptance of the Chiltern hundreds, and succeeded him as representative for the borough of Cambridge. The constant and uniform opinion which those who chose him entertained of his parliamentary conduct, cannot be more strongly evinced than by the unanimity of their choice; for he had only one opposition, and that from election-adventurers, one of whom not long after, as it often happens to the disturbers of established interests, appeared in the Gazette, among the bad list of bankrupts.

In the year 1755, his late Majesty was pleased to appoint Mr. Jenyns one of the Lords Commissioners of the Board for Trade and Plantations, at which he continued to sit until an alteration was made in its constitution by parliament, and when the business of it was transferred to the great officers of state, and those who are in the list of his Majesty's Honourable Privy Council.

He was twice married, first to

Mary, the sole daughter of Colonel Soame, of Dereham, in Norfolk, who dying without issue, he afterwards married Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry Grey, Esq. of Hackney, in the county of Middlesex, who survived him.—He died of a fever after a few days illness on the 18th day of December, 1787, at his house in Tilney Street, Audley Square, leaving no issue.

Mr. Jenyns was a man of great mildness, gentleness, and sweetness of temper, which he manifested to all with whom he had concerns, either in the business of life, or its social intercourse. His earnest desire was as far as possible, never to offend any person; and he made such allowances, even for those who in their dispositions differed from him, that he was rarely offended with others; of which in a long life he gave many notable instances. He was strict in the performance of religious duties in public, and a constant practiser of them in private, ever professing the greatest veneration for the Church of England and its government, as by law established, though he thought that alterations and amendments might be made in it which would render it more perfect than it is in its present state.

In private life he was most amiable and engaging, for he was possessed of a well-informed mind, accompanied by an uncommon vein of the most lively, spirited, and genuine wit, which always flowed very copiously amongst those with whom he conversed; but which was tempered with such kindness of nature, that it never was the cause of uneasiness to any one of those among whom he lived. This made his acquaintance much sought after and courted by all those who had a taste for brilliant conversation, being well assured that they would be delighted with it wherever he was; and that though they were not endued with the same talent, they never would

be censured by him because they wanted it.

This so gentle an exertion of so rare a quality, he not only strictly observed himself, but was always much hurt if he observed the want of it in others; and he considered every fall of wit, however bright it might be, if it tended to the mortification of those who heard it, as one of its greatest abuses, since he looked upon all pre-eminent gifts of the mind bestowed by nature, as much for the happiness of others as of those who possess them. In his conversation he was so far from recurring to religion or scripture as subjects for his wit, that those who lived most with him could not help observing, that, in his common and unguarded social hours, he ever strictly abstained from using the name of the Supreme Being, unless when it was rendered necessary by the immediate subject of the conversation.

No person ever felt more for the miseries of others than Mr. Jenyns. No person saw, or more strictly practised the duty imposed on those who form the superior ranks of life, of endeavouring to reconcile the lower classes to their present condition, by contributing as far as they are able to make them happy; and thereby to cause them to feel their inferiority as little as possible. He was, therefore, most kind and courteous to all below him, not only in his expressions, and in his behaviour, but in assisting them in all their wants and distresses; ever considering his poor neighbours, in the country, as parts of his family, and, as such entitled to his care and protection.

He spent his summers at his house in the country, residing there with hospitality to his tenants and neighbours; and never suffered any places at that season, calculated for public diversions to allure him; for he said, he could at that time, do more good in his own parish than in any other

situation. He frequently lamented the prevailing fashions of the latter times of his life, which carried gentlemen with their families from London, when it is deserted by all whose absence can be dispensed with, to places far distant from their houses and ancient seats, in the country, and which are opened chiefly for the reception of those who wish to continue scenes of dissipation they have left. Hence it happens, that the money, which should revert to the districts from whence it is received, is turned into a different channel; tenants are deprived of the advantages they are in some degree entitled to from its expenditure among them; hospitality is destroyed, and the stream of charity, that would otherwise have gladdened the hearts of their poor neighbours is stopped; their inferiors are deprived of their example, encouragement, and protection in the practice of religion and virtue; and the manners of the country are altered for the worse, which necessarily occasions great mischief to the public.

Such was Mr. Jenyns in his private walk of life, and the principles on which that conduct was founded; when expanded as motives for his public character in a larger sphere of action, rendered him equally praise-worthy. When he was in the country he constantly acted as a magistrate in his own district, and attended all those meetings which were holden for the purpose of public justice. From the general opinion entertained of his inflexible integrity and superior understanding, he was much resorted to in that character at home. From his natural sagacity, quick discernment, and long experience on hearing and examining the parties, he seldom failed of obtaining a complete knowledge of the cases that came before him; and he was thereby enabled to determine according to the rules of strict justice, always giving his reasons

sons for what he did with a clearness and perspicuity peculiar to himself, and expressing those reasons in words so accommodated to the understandings of all who heard him, that few or none departed dissatisfied with his decisions. When in the course of conversation, among other topics which arose, the duty of a magistrate had its place, and the pains attending it, as also the difficulties from the number and variety of powers with which the legislature had entrusted him, were asserted, he used to say, that he thought himself singularly happy, that on a recollection of the many years he had acted in the commission of the peace, he had never been called to the Court of King's Bench to account for his not understanding an act of parliament, of which he was often one of the makers, though this had happened sometimes to people in his situation; and that he had been amply compensated for the pains he had taken, and the difficulties he had met with during his long exercise of that civil office, by the many opportunities with which he had been gratified of reconciling those who came before him, inflamed with the highest degree of hatred to each other; for he considered that beatitude which is pronounced on the peace-makers as an essential part of the internal evidence of the truth of the Christian religion.

From having long had a seat at the board of trade, and constantly attending his duty there, Mr. Jenyns gained a knowledge of the great outlines of the commercial interests of his country; and though he never employed himself in minutely investigating its particular branches, yet, when it became the topic of conversation, he could discourse pertinently upon it, and much to the information of those who were present, having never failed to avail himself of the information which was brought to that board by mer-

chants of the first eminence. Though he never published any thing on the subject, it was an object which engaged much of his attention, and on which he had made up in his mind certain principles: from these he never departed, and those to whom he communicated them thought him in general well warranted in his opinions.

He always considered the British empire as enlarged beyond the bounds dictated by sound policy; that those parts of it situated beyond the Atlantic Ocean to the west, and beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the east, were at too great a distance to be properly governed; that the American colonies were too kindly fostered by the mother country; and that the millions expended in promoting their growth would at least rear them to a height at which they would think themselves entitled to ask for emancipation, an observation which he often made before that event happened, and he lived to see with regret his prophecy accomplished.

He always beheld our conquests in the East-Indies with a real concern, and considered the great influx of wealth brought from thence into this country by individuals, as an ample revenge for the unjust depredations committed on the territorial possessions of the native princes; ever looking upon those depredations as the most enormous acts of injustice that could be done by one state to another, and that this was heightened by a most flagrant act of ingratitude for the original permission of commercial establishments made on their coasts, in order that trade might be carried on to more advantage. On account of this permission, he thought the natives were entitled to the most perfect amity, and every public social intercourse shewn to the most favoured nations. Sometimes, he would add, that though Asia in her turn had been often conquered by all who attacked her, yet, that

that the wealth brought from thence by the conquerors into their respective dominions, had always introduced with it so great a luxury, that those virtues by which they became conquerors, were at last enfeebled and done away, insomuch that Asia in her turn became the conqueror. He considered the East Indies, and America, as two immense disproportionate wings to the small body of the island, and expressed his fears lest at some time or other they might fly away with the British empire.

As an author, as long as a true taste for fine writing shall exist, Mr. Jenyns will have a distinguished place amongst those who have excelled. Whatever he published, whether he sported with his muse, or appeared in the plain garb of prose, was sought after with avidity, and read with pleasure by those who were esteemed the best judges of composition. His poems, some of which he wrote at an early period of life, are on the most pleasing subjects, and are executed with the warmest animation of fancy, and at the same time great correctness. His wit is pure and brilliant; and his versification smooth and harmonious. In short, those who can relish the chasteness of composition, and the elegant ease of Gay, Pope, and Addison, must admire the poetical effusions of this excellent writer, whose genius and taste were truly classical. What can be more natural or better expressed than the following lines in his poem entitled the *Art of Dancing*, where he describes the use and importance of the fan :

But let me now my lovely charge remind,
Lest they, forgetful, leave their fans behind.

Lay not, ye fair, the pretty toy aside,
A toy at once display'd for use and pride;
A wond'rous engine, that, by magic charms,
Cools your own breasts, and ev'ry other's warms.

What daring bard shall e'er attempt to tell
The pow'r is that in this little weapon dwell?
What verse can e'er explain its various parts,
Its numerous uses, motions, charms, and arts?

Its painted folds, that oft extended wide,
Th' afflicted fair-one's blubber'd beauties hide,

When secret sorrows her sad bosom fill,
If STREPHON is unkind, or SHOCK is ill:
Its sticks, on which her eyes dejected pore,
And pointing fingers number o'er and o'er,
When the kind virgin burns with secret shame,

Dies to consent, yet fears to own her flame;
Its shake triumphant, its victorious clap,
Its angry flutter, and its wanton tap?

The concluding lines of this poem display also much neatness and animation.

And now the work completely finish'd lies,
Which the devouring teeth of time defies:
Whilst birds in air, or fish in streams we find,

Or damsels fret with aged partners join'd;
As long as nymphs shall, with attentive ear,
A fiddle rather than a sermon hear;
So long the brightest eyes shall oft peruse
These useful lines of my instructive muse;
Each belle shall wear them wrote upon her fan,
And each bright beau shall read them—if he can.

He wonderfully excelled in burlesque imitations of the ancient poets, by applying their thoughts to modern times and circumstances; which might well be expected after his short but excellent strictures on this manner of writing, prefixed to his imitations of the first epistle of the second book of *Horace's Epistles*, inscribed to the Lord Chancellor Hardwick. For many years before he died, he had bid farewell to his muse, and in the language of Lord Bacon, applied himself to such subjects as come home, if not to men's business, yet close to their bosoms; but long as the parting had been, impelled by affection, he again courted his muse, when almost in the last stage of his life. The sincere respect which he entertained for his Majesty, produced a short poem on his escape from the dangerous attack of a maniac, in which it, however, appears, that when compared with his early poems, the sun of his imagination was at that time almost set, though age had not in the least degree chilled in his heart the effusion of benevolence and affection.

As a writer of prose, whoever will examine his stile, will find that he is intitled to a place amongst the purest and correctest writers of the English language. He always puts proper words in proper places, and hath at the same time, a variety in different members of his periods, which would otherwise tire and disgust the reader with their sameness. His matter is always most pertinent to the subject which he handles; he reasons with closeness and precision, and always by a regular chain of argument arrives at the conclusions which he professes is his design to establish. *The Free Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Evil*, was the first of Mr. Jenyns' works on account of which he was attacked. Pamphlets were published, and private letters were addressed to him on that occasion, some of them charged with great acrimony, much abuse, and no small portion of calumny. Having long submitted with silent patience to a treatment which he by no means deserved, he answered his adversaries, in a preface to the second edition of that work, published some years after the first; and convinced that he had been much misunderstood by those who had written against him, he makes the clearest, the sincerest, and the most liberal declaration of the end proposed by him in that treatise, in the following words:—"That his intentions were to reconcile the numerous evils so conspicuous in the creation with the wisdom, power, and goodness of the creator; to shew that no more of them are admitted by him than are necessary towards promoting universal good; and from thence to persuade men to an entire resignation to his all-wise but incomprehensible dispensations. To ascertain the nature of virtue, and to enforce the practice of it; to prove the certainty of a future state, and the justice of the rewards and punishments that will

"attend it; to recommend submission to national governments, and conformity to national religions, notwithstanding the evils and defects which must unavoidably adhere to them; and lastly to shew the excellence and credibility of the Christian revelation, to reconcile some of its most abstruse doctrines with reason, and to answer all those objections to its authority which have been drawn from its imperfections and abuses. These, and these only were his intentions." To the truth of this solemn declaration, all those who knew the great sincerity of the author's heart, from which, on no occasion he was ever known to depart, will readily subscribe their unfeigned assent.

In the summer of the year 1776, Mr. Jenyns published, *A View of the Internal Evidences of the Christian Religion*, without his name. The reception that this work met with was such as is seldom shewn to the compositions of the most approved writers; it in general gave satisfaction both to the clergy and the laity; it was translated into foreign languages, and in a short time went through three editions, to the last of which, by the advice of his friends, the author put his name. It was written under a full conviction of the truth of the Christian dispensation, and with a sincere zeal for its service. Warmed with the principles it requires, and the duties it commands, the picture he draws of its excellencies is most exact in its outline; the parts are beautifully arranged, and the whole glows with the most animated colouring.

Though this book was attacked, and the author treated with a very unbecoming asperity, by two able writers, yet the number of private letters he received from those on whom the work had that effect, his benevolent intention proposed, more than consoled him for the rude treatment he received from such writers.

writers. Many of these letters contain acknowledgments from several persons whom this book had led from unbelief to a full conviction of the truths he had endeavoured to establish. They were written with that humility and pious gratitude which the primitive Christians expressed to their instructors, in the wonderful dispensations of the gospel.

The good effects of this work were not confined to this country. They operated in distant worlds, and did that which, perhaps, neither of those writers who attacked him, though professed servants of Christ, ever accomplished; for it propagated their Master's religion in India, as appears by a letter from thence, in which the writer, confessing his former infidelity, and the pains he had

long in vain taken, by means of books recommended to him, written on the truth of the Christian religion, to give his assent to it, concludes in these words: "I eagerly wished to believe, but could not satisfactorily. But now, I thank God, Soame Jenyns' reasons have, I hope, triumphed over all my doubts, and I have given an unfeigned and full assent to his three propositions, which in my opinion prove all that is wanted to be cleared up."

The following entry, the original of which may be found in the registry of burials in the parish of Bottisham, for the year 1787, while it does honour to the writer of it, expresses, in a few words, the character of this valuable member of society.

SOAME JENYNS, in the 83d year of his age.

What his literary character was,
The world hath already judged for itself;
But it remains for his parish minister
to do his duty

By declaring,
That while he registers the burial of
SOAME JENYNS,

He regrets one of *the most*
amiable of men,

And one of *the truest Christians.*

To the parish of Bottisham he is an
irreparable loss.

He was buried in this church, December 27,
near midnight,

By William Lort Mansell,* sequestrator;
Who transgresses the common forms
of a Register,

Merely because he thinks it to be
The most solemn and lasting method
of recording to posterity,

That the *finest understanding*
has been united
To the *best heart.*

* Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and public orator of that university.

REFLECTIONS ON THE FORMATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF RICHES.

BY THE LATE MR. TURGOT, SOME TIME INTENDANT OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE.

(Continued from Page 209)

§ 66. **FOURTH** employment of capitals, in advances for enterprizes of commerce. Necessity of the interposition of merchants properly so called, between the producers of the commodities and the consumers.

The undertakers either of cultivation or manufacture, draw their advances and profits only from the sale of the fruits of the earth, or the commodities fabricated. It is always the wants and the capacity of the consumer that sets the price on the sale; neither does the consumer want the produce prepared or fitted up at the moment of its crop, or the perfection of the work. However, the undertakers want their stocks immediately and regularly reimbursed, to embark in fresh enterprizes: the manuring and the seed ought to succeed the crops without interruption. The workmen of a manufacture are unceasingly to be employed in beginning other works in proportion as the first are distributed, and to replace the materials in measure as they are consumed. It would not be adviseable to stop short in an enterprize once put in execution, nor is it to be presumed that they can be begun again at any time. It is then the strictest interest of the undertaker to have his capital quickly reimbursed by the sale of his crops or commodities. On the other hand, it is the consumer's interest to find, when and where he wishes, the things he stands in need of; it would be extremely inconvenient for him to be necessitated to make, at the time of the crop, his provision for the whole course of a year. Among the objects of usual consumption, there are many that require long and expensive labours, labours that cannot be undertaken

with profit, only on a large quantity of materials, and such as the consumption of a small number of inhabitants of a limited district, may not be sufficient for the sale of the works of a single manufactory. Undertakings of this kind must then necessarily be in a reduced number, at a considerable distance from each other, and consequently very distant from the habitations of the greater number of consumers. There is no man, not oppressed under the extremest misery, that is not in a situation to consume several things, which are neither gathered nor fabricated, but in places considerably distant from him, and not less distant from each other. A person that could not procure himself the objects of his consumption but in buying it directly from the hand of him that gathers or works it, would be either unprovided with many commodities, or pass his life in wandering after them.

This double interest which the person producing and the consumer have, the former to find a purchaser, the other to find where to purchase, and yet not to waste useful time in expecting a purchaser, or in finding a seller, has given the idea to a third person to stand between the one and the other. And it is the object of the mercantile profession who purchase goods from the hands of the producer, to store them in warehouses, whither the consumer comes to make his purchase. By these means the undertaker, assured of the sale and the re-acquisition of his funds, looks undisturbed and indefatigably out for new productions, and the consumer finds within his reach and at the same time, the objects he is in want of.

§ 67. *Different orders of merchants. They all agree in purchasing to sell again, and that their traffic is supported by advances which are to revert with a profit, to be engaged in a new enterprize.*

From the green-woman who exposes her ware in a market, to the merchants of Nantz or Cadiz, who traffic even to India and America, the possession of a trader, or what is properly called commerce, divides into an infinity of branches, and it may be said of degrees. Such a trader confines himself to provide one or several species of commodities which he sells in his shop to those who chuse; another goes with certain commodities to a place where they are in demand, to bring from thence in exchange such things as are produced there, and are wanted in the place from whence he departed: one makes his exchanges in his neighbourhood, and by himself, another by means of correspondents, and by the interposition of carriers whom he pays, sends and employs from one province to another, from one kingdom to another, from Europe to Asia, and from Asia back to Europe. One sells his merchandize by retail to those who use them, another only sells in large parcels at a time to other traders, who retail them out to the consumers; but all have this in common that they buy to sell again, and that their first purchases are advances, which is returned to them only in course of time. They ought to be returned to them, like those of the cultivators and manufacturers, not only entirely in a certain time to be employed again in new purchases, but also, 1. with an equal revenue to what they could acquire with their capital without any labour; 2. with the wages or value of their labour, of their risk, and of their industry. Without being assured of this return, and of these indispensable profits, no trader would enter into business, nor could any one possibly continue therein: 'tis in this view he governs himself in

his purchases, on a calculation he makes of the quantity and the price of things which he can hope to dispose of in a certain time: the retailer learns from experience, by the success of limited trials made with precaution, what is nearly the wants of those consumers who deal with him. The merchant learns from his correspondents of the plenty or scarcity, and of the price of merchandize in those different countries to which his commerce extends; he directs his speculations accordingly, he sends his goods from the country where they bear a low price to those where they are sold dearer, including an expence of transportation in the calculation of the advances he ought to be reimbursed. Since trade is necessary, and it is impossible to undertake any commerce without advances proportionable to its extent, here we see another method of employing personal property, a new use that the possessor of a parcel of commodities, reserved and accumulated, of a sum of money, in a word, of a capital, may make of it to procure himself subsistence, and to augment, if he can, his riches.

§ 68. *The notion of the circulation of money.*

We see by what has been just now said, how the cultivation of lands, manufactures of all kinds, and all the branches of trade, depend on a mass of capital, or the accumulation of personal property, which having been at first advanced by the undertakers, in each of these different branches, ought to return to them again every year with a regular profit; that is, the capital to be again inverted, and advanced in the continuation of the same enterprizes, and the profits for the greater or less subsistence of the undertakers. It is this continued advance and return which constitutes what ought to be called the circulation of money: this useful and fruitful circulation, which animates all the labour of society, which supports all the motion

and

and the life of the body politic, and which is with great reason compared to the circulation of the blood in the human body. For if by whatever disorder in the course of the expences of the different orders of society, the undertakers cease to draw their advances with such profit as they have a right to expect, it is evident they will be obliged to reduce their undertakings, that the total of the labour, that of the consumption of the fruits of the earth, that of the productions and of the revenue would be equally diminished; that riches will succeed to poverty, and that the common workman, ceasing to find employ, will fall into the deepest misery.

§ 69. *All extensive undertakings, particularly those of manufactures and of commerce, must indispensably be very confined, before the introduction of gold and silver in trade.*

It is almost unnecessary to remark that undertakings of all kinds, but especially those of manufacturers, and above all those of commerce, must unavoidably be very confined before the introduction of gold and silver in trade, since it was almost impossible to accumulate considerable capitals, and yet more difficult to multiply and divide payments as much as is necessary to facilitate and increase the exchanges to that extent, which a spirited commerce and circulation require. The cultivation of the land only may support itself to a certain degree, because the cattle are the principal cause of the advances required therein, and it is very probable there is then no other adventurer in cultivation but the proprietor. As to arts of all kinds, they must necessarily have been in the greatest languor before the introduction of money; they were confined to the coarsest works, for which the proprietors supported the advances by nourishing the workmen, and furnishing them with materials, or they caused them to be made in their own houses by their servants.

§ 70. *Capitals being as necessary to*

all undertakings as labour and industry, the industrious man shares voluntarily the profit of his enterprize with the owner of the capital, who furnishes him the funds he is in need of.

Since capitals are the indispensable foundation of all lucrative enterprizes; since with money we can furnish means for culture, establish manufactures, raise a commerce, the profits of which being accumulated and frugally laid up, will become a new capital; since, in a word, money is the principal means to beget money, those who with industry and the love of labour are destitute of capital, and have not sufficient for the undertaking they wish to embark in, have no difficulty in resolving to give up to the proprietors of such capital or money, who are willing to trust them, a portion of the profits which they are in expectation of gaining over and above their advances.

§ 71. *Fifth employment of capitals, lending on interest; nature of a loan.*

The possessors of money balance the risk their capital may run, if the enterprize does not succeed, with the advantage of enjoying a constant profit without toil; and regulate themselves thereby, to require more or less profit or interest for their money, or to consent to lend it for such an interest as the borrower offers. Here another opportunity opens to the possessor of money, viz. lending on interest, or the commerce of money. Let no one mistake me here, lending on interest is only a trade in which the lender is a man who sells the use of his money, and the borrower one who buys; precisely the same as the proprietor of an estate, or the person who farms it, buys and sells respectively the use of the hired land. The Latin term for a loan of money on interest, expresses it exactly, *usura pecunie*, a word which adopted into the French language is become odious, by a consequence of false ideas being adopted on the interest of money.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT OF A REMARKABLE POISONOUS INSECT FOUND IN SOUTH AMERICA.

IN the vallies of the province of Popayan, in South America, there are insects very remarkable for the malignity of the poisonous juices contained in their bodies. Among those there is one called Coya, or Coyba, of a fiery red colour, and in size not much exceeding a common bug. It is generally found under stones, and in the fields amongst the grass and other herbs: when this insect is crushed or burnt upon the skin of any animal, its noxious juices penetrate through the pores of the animal, mix with its blood and humours, and immediately produce a very formidable swelling; the consequence of which is, that if no remedy be applied death ensues in a very short time. The only remedy is to take the stalks or dried stems of a particular species of plant which grows in those vallies, to set them on fire, and to singe the patient's body all over with them as soon as it begins to swell, an operation which the Indians in those parts perform with surprising dexterity. It is to be observed, that if the insect is crushed in the palms of the hands no ill effect follows, from which we may conclude, that the quantity of the poison being very small, it is absorbed by the callosities of the palm of the hand, and

its entrance into the blood prevented. The Indian carriers who travel through those countries, often crush them between their hands to gratify the curiosity of travellers; but it is not to be doubted that if the coya were to be crushed upon the palm of a delicate hand, in which there were no callosities, or at least none considerable, it would produce the very same effect as when crushed upon any other part of the body.

Those who have occasion to pass through these vallies, if they find themselves bit by any insect in the neck or face, take care not to scratch or touch the place, for the least touch will burst the coya, and it does no hurt unless it be crushed, but desire the Indians who accompany them to search where they feel the bite, and if it happens to be a coya, they blow it off with their breath without touching it, and thus free them from danger. Instinct teaches the cattle that feed in these vallies to make use of a like precaution, for they always blow very strongly upon the herbs before they eat them; but notwithstanding this the mules sometimes eat a coya, the consequence of which always is a swelling, and almost immediate death.

VOYAGE FROM ACAPULCO TO MANILLA, BEING PART OF A VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

(Continued from Page 220.)

IPASSED my time in the villages of Catarman, Lawan, and Palapa, each of which, like all the others in this country, have a little fort, in which is the church. The inhabitants retire to these forts with their most valuable effects, when they are

attacked by the Mahometans, whom the Spaniards call Moors.

The inhabitants of all these countries on the borders of the sea, formerly followed the Mahomedan religion; but the Spanish missionaries have converted them, and made them

them subject to the crown of Spain; indeed they exercise almost a despotic power. They punish them for the smallest fault with whipping; every one without distinction of rank, age, or sex; old men and young women, girls and children, are equally subjected to them. It is very true, that the Jesuits who exercise the parochial duties, have the art so to govern the minds of those they punish, that they return thanks to the holy father, and voluntarily receive his discipline. These punishments are public, and not disgraceful, as every spectator knows he is liable to the same, and may to-morrow experience them himself.

They are very well informed in religious matters: besides the usual feast days, they celebrate divine service on two fixed days every week; they sing the psalms with harmony, devotion, and a natural simplicity, which renders the ceremony very awful. I was there on the day of the celebration of their annual feast: it was conducted decently and with devotion, but according to the Spanish rites.

The custom of dancing in the churches on festival days, has been for sometime laid aside in this island, as they very justly thought such a custom dangerous. The Jesuits know by confession, the innermost recesses of the Indian's soul, who comes honestly to consult them in the least difficulty; the holy father always assists them with his council, and gives them some small present either in medicines, wine, liquors, or provisions: they alternately use kindness or severity, so that the people easily correct their faults, and look on the priest as a father.

The priest or curate superintends the building of the fort, &c. providing it with cannon; he directs the construction of boats for war, and sometimes takes the command of them. He appoints the commanders, fixes the guard and the posts for the centinels; in short, he is both their spiritual and tem-

poral director. Although I am not naturally an advocate for severity, or monastic power, yet I could not avoid admiring these regulations, and from whatever motive they proceeded, good or bad, they in general tended to the public welfare. This kind of government, as far as relates to the police and the spiritual rule, is the same as the Jesuits observe in their missions at Paraguay; here, however, the Indians find their advantage in it. During my residence in these islands, advice was received that the king of Spain had suppressed the order of Jesuits in his dominions, and they proceeded to collect the fathers together, in order to send them into exile. They supported this event with submission and firmness, although they had it in their power to effect a revolution, from the sincere respect the Indians entertained for them. The soil of the island of Samar is very fertile, and cultivated with ease; it yields at least forty for one. They cultivate here no other grain but rice, which serves for the priests, the government of Manilla, and the governor of the province, who, as I have before observed, is the only lay Spaniards in a very large extent of country. The Indians seldom use any other food than potatoes, yams, and another root called *gaby*. I also eat many roots while I resided there, their sweet flavour was more agreeable to me than the insipid taste of rice boiled in water. At first they appeared windy and heavy, but I soon became used to them and they nourished me better than rice. I also eat much of the flesh of the hogs, which are smaller and leaner than ours; the flesh is not heavy, it is dark coloured and streaked like that of an ox. The eggs of the *tabon* are very common here, and they are sometimes found forty in one hole, the Indians by experience know where to find, and how to get at them. These eggs are heavy, and do not digest well. They distill a good spirit from the bean of the shrub

shrub called *nipe*, the fruit of the cocoa tree, and that of a tree called Cabonegro, on account of its black fibres with which they make very good cables and cordage. The Indians also feed on the fruit of cocoa nuts when it begins to grow solid; it then looks like a kind of white glew, but does not digest well.

The Indian of Samar has no other arms or instrument for labour than a kind of cutlass, which he calls *cris* or *campilan*. He makes use of it to cut down the largest trees, of which he makes his proa, and splits bamboo to convert into planks. When any of these instruments have been much used, they serve the women to dig the earth, which is sandy, in order to plant potatoes and other roots. In the space of two months these roots grow very large, and a spot of ground of forty toises square will furnish more than is sufficient for a pretty numerous family.

They also cultivate sugar canes, cabbages, garlick, onions, melons, china oranges, citrons, pulse, and many other fruits not known in Europe, but these in small quantities. They have bananas in great plenty, twelve or fourteen different species, and of different flavours. They are obliged by government to cultivate cocoa trees, which grow here to a great height.

The woods are full of cocoas, figs, citrons, *pomplemons*, (a kind of oranges of five inches diameter at least.) pepper, honey and wax. You cannot go any great way without finding bee-hives, they are suspended to the branches of trees in the form of long gourds.

Game is equally plenty, and the woods harbour birds of every kind, particularly fowls. They differ from ours by their bodies being thicker and their feet shorter; they are of a grey colour spotted like a partridge. Pigeons also are very plenty; of them they have three species, the first are grey and as large as pullets, the second are smaller, and the third

species are green, and excellent. There is also another species of birds called Calao, as large as a goose, very good to eat, but difficult to catch; they perch on the highest trees, in the neighbourhood of marshy places; they fly very rapid, and are very remarkable about the head, on which grows a large oblong crown, red, smooth, and of the same materials as the bill, of which it forms a part. This ornament, joined to the size of the bird, gives it a very majestic air, its plumage being black and red. I have had the honour to present the head of one of these birds to the academy. Cocatoos, a kind of white peroquets, and *lowries*, are here in great plenty, and a great number of pretty little peroquets of different colours, and about the size of a linnet. There is also a species of small bird, about the size of a wasp, very beautiful for the brilliancy of its colours, which are fawn, red and blue. The quadrupeds are equally numerous: the woods are full of very large monkeys, wild buffaloes, and wild goats. They gave me many accounts of the various species of serpents, both large and small, but I did not see any that were very extraordinary.

It is equally easy in these islands to provide for cloathing as for food; there is a kind of banana tree, the bark of which is composed of fibres which easily separate when it is steeped in water; they twist several of them together and make a very fine linen, which is at first harsh, but becomes soft after it is prepared with lime or chalk; they call this thread or fibre *abaca*; and besides this linen they make cordage of it. House room is provided in this place with as great ease as cloathing, for the rivers are bordered by bamboos, and the woods are full of the *nipe* and *rotan*. The latter serves them for nails, with which they secure their bamboos with admirable dexterity, for they do not employ iron in their houses; in fine, two months

months labour in a year at the utmost are all that is necessary for these people, whose gentle manners sufficiently announce their felicity. The men are of an easy and open character, and the women gay and gallant without being lewd. The Indians, although little capable to bear fatigue, yet do not fly from it on the least necessity, they are somewhat vain, liars, and interested in their commerce with Europeans, but are neither distrustful or thievish. Their inclination to be friendly has given me an opportunity to remark such openness of heart, as I had not observed any where else, and I think their sensations are in many respects very delicate.

I was much surprised when I saw the inhabitants precede the kiss, the usual testimony of love between the two sexes, and between parents and children, by a gentle aspiration of the breath of the party they are going to salute. These Bissaye Indians have great taste for music, and are extremely ready in all sorts of arts and trades, although they are by no means accomplished masters in any from their little practice. Their muscles are in general more pliant than ours, and they use their feet almost as readily as we do our hands, to take up any thing; they pinch with their toes almost as strongly as we do with our fingers. The same man will make a musical instrument out of the campilan he has made use of to cut down a large tree, or to hollow a canoe; the same instrument is also used to draw designs, and cut them with great taste on their bamboos, and also to defend them from their enemies; in fine, it is their only instrument for cutting. They make mats of such exquisite fineness, that they may be put into the pocket, although they are six feet long; they are also very expert in various inventions, and paint with very lively colours which they extract from the bark of certain trees.

They manufacture some pretty

stuffs made of *abaca*, or the fibres of the banana tree, mixed with silk or cotton; they can also embroider on silk very well, and make lace. When they go to sea they become carpenters, caulkers and sailors; on shore they are ropemakers and boat or proa builders. In short, I cannot sufficiently admire their ingenuity, and what is more remarkable, there are not any of them who constantly apply to any one trade, but rather to every one according to their humours, or their wants. They used formerly to write with a style, or kind of pen, on leaves of the cocoa tree, or *nipe*. They have a custom here which they call *massaging*, and consists in giving a circulation to the blood and humours, by making the joints crack, and by pressing or kneading the flesh in different parts of the body. They rub the joints of their children with oil; this custom appear to me very healthy, and is used throughout Asia. Instead of cupping instruments they pinch the patient very hard on the top of the shoulder, and this they repeat until they raise blisters; instead of opening a vein, they cut notches in the flesh. Their pharmacy is better than their surgery, for they are acquainted with many medicinal herbs and balsams.

For cloathing, they wear only a long and large kind of breeches which comes down to the mid-leg, a shirt reaching down under the breeches to the middle of the thigh, and a handkerchief twirled like a snake, and wrapped round the head like a turban; when they have a mind to be superbly dressed, they put on a kind of morning gown made of silk and cotton, and they then wear a hat. Long nails are here esteemed a great beauty, but only on the middle and little fingers; I have seen some that were at least two inches in length. The women wear round their waists a piece of linen or cotton, which being wrapped several times round
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the body, covers them to the feet : some of them wear a petticoat made of *abaca*, which is so fine and transparent, that they are obliged from a regard for modesty, to fold it over before and fasten it at the waist, and this leaves one leg naked : they also wear a shift which reaches only to the girdle. Their head is covered with a handkerchief, like the men ; but their hair is done up in the form of a coronet on the top of the head ; when dressed they wear a gown. Both sexes having very fine hair, especially the women, who take a particular care of it, they rub it with oil of cocoa, which makes it very thick and black. There are very few homely women among them, although their noses are short and flat at top, but their nostrils are not broad and open like the negroes ; their features are small and irregular, yet almost all of them have fine eyes and good countenances. Instead of pitchers they make use of long bamboos six or seven inches diameter. Sometimes they wear hats made of the leaves of the nipe, like those I had seen before, and when they go to fetch water, the arrangement of their petticoat, their large hats, and the large bamboo they carry with them, gives them altogether an appearance of grace, dignity, and apparent pride. The Indians of both sexes who reside at a distance from the villages, go almost naked, especially those who are far from the missionaries.

The rivers are full of fish, as are the shores of the island, on which they catch pearls : they take the fish by intoxicating them with a paste made of a kind of bruised peas, which they call *coco* ; they strew it over the shore at low water, and when the tide is out ; the fish when affected by it rise to the top of the water, and are easily taken. Iron wood, ebony, and dye woods, are here very plenty. Some gold dust

is brought from the interior parts of the country, but the priests alone are acquainted with this branch of commerce. The Spaniards are prohibited from remaining any time in the Indian villages, under the laudable pretence (if that is really the reason) that the manners of these innocent people may not be injured by the corruption of the Europeans. For some time past the government of Manilla has been endeavouring to restrain the ecclesiastical power here.

I could continue for ever to speak of this country with raptures ; it is the most agreeable I have ever seen, and I have often envied the happiness of these Bislayes, for that is a name generally given to all the Indians of the Phillippine Island, who do not inhabit the Island of Luconia. The island on which I was, is about seventy leagues round, and has about ten thousand inhabitants ; and if I was delighted with the province of the Tegas, Samar gave me infinitely more pleasure. The first presented to my view boundless plains, immense woods, rivers and lakes, the noise of whose waters, and the extent thereof announced the majesty of the Creator. Samar presented beautiful fountains, and rivulets ; the whole country is covered with woods, which are not indeed so majestic as those of the Tegas, but whose trees are some of them covered with fine fruits, or flowers, and others produce excellent balsams for medicines, (among others the palomaria,) or for perfumes for their houses. The bee-hives suspended to the branches of the trees, the agreeable adour produced by a white flower, something like jessamine, and by a quantity of China roses, all proclaim nature in its infancy, such as she was elsewhere, before the labour of mankind had changed her agreeable form.

(To be continued.)

OBSERVATIONS MADE DURING A TOUR INTO PERSIA IN THE
YEAR 1787.

BY M. DE BEAUCHAMP, VICAR GENERAL OF BABYLON.

EVER since the year 1781, when I went to Bagdad, I had a great desire of doing something towards rectifying the geography of Persia; and as Mr. De La Lande strongly pressed me in his letter to undertake this object, I set out for that purpose on the 6th of April, 1787. Persia, on account of its antiquity, and the magnificence of its sovereigns, has always been considered as one of the first empires in the East; and notwithstanding the numberless relations respecting it, which have been given by travellers, the public still eagerly receive any new information that appears. This is the consequence of that esteem which the Europeans have for the ancient Persians.

Were Persia still what it was in the time of the Sophis, or even in the time of Nadir Shaw, I should be inclined to think that I could not give a better account of it than that of Chardin, the most learned and judicious traveller that ever was in the country. Though there are at present very few remains of those magnificent buildings of which he speaks, we have every reason to believe that in his descriptions he has not exaggerated with regard to the character of the Persians: amidst the civil dissensions by which Persia is now torn, they are still the same as in the time of Chardin. As the work of this author is now become scarce, I am of opinion that it would be doing a service to the public, to give a new edition of it, but less voluminous, and to suppress many repetitions and useless episodes, rectifying at the same time the geographical part, in which Chardin must necessarily have made many mistakes, as he took the longitudes and latitudes from Persian manuscripts. This correction would require an editor acquainted with the Arabic language, in order to rectify those names which have a reference to religion or the

sciences. Chardin confesses that he learned only the Turkish and the Persian languages.

Having set out from Bagdad with a strong caravan, we travelled six weeks before we arrived at the first mountains by which the desert is bounded on that side, and which separate Persia from the territories of the Grand Signior. I call it a desert, because it is a flat country; but those parts which are watered by the *Diala* are extremely fertile. As this river, which comes from Persia, and throws itself into the Tigris below Bagdad, has the advantage of being on a level with the land, the inhabitants have made a number of small canals from it, which disperse its water throughout the cultivated fields and gardens belonging to eighty-two villages in its neighbourhood. These villages supply corn, at least in a great part, to the city of Bagdad, which could not subsist by its own produce, though situated on a large river. Its low situation renders it almost useless, and the gardens around it cannot be watered but at a great expence, and by means of leathern bags, which are carried by oxen from morning till night.

The first mountains of Persia are exceedingly high, and form a chain which the traveller who visits that country must cross. We found great difficulty in ascending that which is called *Gebel-Tak*. The road is remarkably narrow, and passes over a slippery kind of rock, abounding with precipices. The mule which carried my astronomical instruments, consisting principally of a clock that vibrated half seconds, a telescope, and a small quadrant, fell down here, and would infallibly have rolled to the bottom, had not one of the drivers who happened to be near, held it by the tail till we could come to its assistance.

After a march of thirteen days,
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we arrived at Kermouncha, a small village of Persia, near which there is an ancient monument, mentioned in several books of travels, and of which I have no where seen a description. Chardin speaks of it in his ninth volume, but in a very brief manner, and without having examined it. This monument stands at the bottom of a high mountain, from which there issues in the spring, a large stream of limpid water, which falling in cascades, waters a most beautiful plain. The Persians call this place Tak-Rustam. This name is famous in Persia, and Chardin pretends that it is the same as Hercules. Others say that it is Ferhabat, the name of a celebrated Persian king. In this place there are two halls cut out in the solid rock in the form of porticoes, one of which is almost double in size to the other. The largest may be about twenty-five or thirty feet square. At the extremity of this apartment there are four figures; the most considerable of which is on a level with the floor. It is an equestrian colossal statue, holding in one hand a lance, and in the other a buckler. The whole is in relief, three-fourths raised, so that it adheres to the rock only by the shoulders of the horse and his rider. The horseman has on a coat of mail, and his head is covered after the manner of the ancient knights. A little higher there is a kind of cornice, above which there are three other figures in bas relief, but much smaller. That in the middle probably represents some sovereign who is presenting a cup, from which water appears to issue, to the figure on the left, who by his modest posture seems to be a minister. The figure on the right represents a woman pouring out water. This, in my opinion, alludes to the neighbouring spring which issues from this charming spot. These figures may be about eight feet in height, and are of very inferior workmanship. On one side of the hall are cut out, but without order, a great number of wild boars, pursued by hunters, mounted on elephants. These

small figures in bas relief are extremely well executed. The wild boars seem to throw themselves from a rock into the sea, on which are seen four boats. In two of these are hunters shooting with bows and arrows, and in the other two six musicians, playing upon instruments composed of ten strings. The other side of the hall exhibits stags or does, pursued by horsemen, riding on full gallop, together with camels and elephants. In the middle is a personage surrounded by slaves, who holds an umbrella over his head, and at his sides stand a number of musicians.

The second hall, which is smaller, contains only two figures of the natural size, placed at the bottom of the portico. By the side of them are two inscriptions in an unknown language, of which I took copies, in order to transmit them to the Abbe Barthelemy.

From Kermouncha, till within three days journey of Isfahan, we crossed very pleasant valleys, abounding with excellent pasturage; but I observed that they exhibited little variety: I met with none of those picturesque views so common in France and other countries of Europe. One beholds here dry barren mountains; the summits of rocks indented like embroidery, but not a single tree; and plains watered by streamlets which are scarcely perceptible. This in general is the appearance presented by the face of the country in Persia. There is a great deal of exaggeration in the accounts of old travellers, and it may be readily perceived that even Chardin was a little prejudiced in favor of the beauty and climate of Persia. This matter, however, may be determined in a few words, and by a fact which cannot be contested by modern travellers: every country destitute of wood and water is a very melancholy country.

I was exposed to some trouble at the distance of two days journey from Kermouncha, in a place named *Sanna*, where the Christians pay a toll for liberty to pass. This toll is trifling when

when Persia is governed by a sovereign; but at present, when every proprietor of a village is a despot, it becomes very arbitrary. I had a great deal of difficulty with the Kan of this village, who made me open my portmanteau; took from me a box containing my papers, together with my money, and would have broke it open had I not been supported in the resistance I made by a Turk of Bagdad, whom I knew; who came to my assistance, and who took it from him, loading him at the same time with every reproachful epithet that a *Sunni*, or orthodox Mussulman, can bestow upon a *Chia*, or a protestant Mussulman. I must here observe, that Christians are molested much more in Persia when they travel than in Turkey. Every time they enter a new province, they meet with disagreeable treatment, on account of this arbitrary tax to which the governors' secretaries subject them. In the states of the Grand Signior, Christians may travel in perfect freedom. When they have paid the tribute of the current year a receipt is given them, and by producing this passport they may go wherever they choose. Europeans, in virtue of their stipulations with the Porte, pay nothing. It is sufficient if they only shew from what quarter of the world they come. From Kermouncha to Hamadan we passed a great number of cities in ruins. The latter stands at the bottom of a chain of mountains called *Alouend*, which Chardin says, are a branch of mount Caucasus.

I was astonished to see these mountains covered with snow in the end of May, under the latitude of thirty-four degrees, especially as they did not appear to me nearly so high as those of Auvergne. I have seen snow upon mountains of much less height in the month of June, and about the latitude of thirty-six degrees; which makes me presume that Persia is an elevated country. Ispahan, though situated in a valley, retains for three

months the snow, which falls there in great abundance.

Between Hamadan and Ispahan we found the soil through which we passed exceedingly good, but almost uncultivated. There is none of it tilled, but small spots in the neighbourhood of the villages, which are very few in number. Chardin says * that no more than the twelfth part of Persia is inhabited. The case however, at present, is much worse; for I can safely affirm that in all the northern part which I traversed, not above the thirtieth part is inhabited. The province of Hamadan, which is in Irac-Agemi, appeared to me to be better cultivated than any of the rest.

In going through the defiles of the mountains we were alarmed by the appearance of some horsemen. They had been perceived in the evening, and the director of the caravan was of opinion that we should depart immediately; but those most interested absolutely refused, telling him that it was extremely dangerous to pass the mountains in the night time. In all difficult matters, the Persians have recourse to divination, which is done by several different methods; but they generally apply to some *Mullah*, who opens the coran as chance directs, and reads the first verse he casts his eye upon, which he adapts to the present conjuncture.

The mountains which we crossed, form as it were the roots of Mount *Alouend*. The stone of which they are composed is of a blackish color, and exfoliates like slate. A kind of thistle with a long stem is found here, which is used as food by the natives of the country. I ate some of it, and found that it had a sourish taste, something near to that of celery. On the 27th of May we encamped in a charming valley, surrounded by mountains so low, that I took up only a quarter of an hour in ascending to the top of them. Here the cold was so intense and piercing at the time of sun rising, that the children of our caravan

could not help crying. The water in our drinking vessels, which were of leather, was frozen, and this at a season when it was so warm at Bagdad, that the people had for some time slept on their terraces. I was still more astonished when at Cashbin, to see snow there on the 8th of July.

Chardin says * that the highest mountains in the universe are found in Persia. Mount Taurus, adds he, which traverses the whole kingdom, has some pointed summits; the extremities of which, on account of their great height, are never seen. This assertion of Chardin, I am of opinion, is rather ill founded. I can hardly allow myself to believe that there are mountains in Persia so high as those of Chimboraco in Peru. I know that there are some very high in Armenia, and on the southern and western shores of the Caspian sea. in the country of the Agvans. But I am much surprised to see Chardin assert, that "the highest parts of these mountains are mount Ararat, in upper Armenia; the chain which separates Media from Hyrcania; that which is between Hyrcania and the country of the Parthians, and particularly mount *Anavend†*; the mountains which separate Chaldea from Arabia, and that which is between Persia and Caramania." I crossed part of these mountains, but I did not find them remarkably high, though they were then covered with snow. From this I should only conclude that the situation of Persia is very elevated. Chardin has remarked, that properly speaking, this kingdom is not watered by any river or rivulet, which is very true. This reflection still tends to support my opinion. If it be high it receives no rivers, and it produces none on account of its naked barren mountains, which are composed only of rock.

Ispahan, that famous city of Asia, is separated from agreeable and fertile valleys, by a desert which we traversed in three days, I observed

a tree here, which may be called the dwarf prickly almond tree. Its leaves are small, and sharp pointed; its branches are covered with prickles, and the fruit, which is smaller than our almond, had exactly the same taste and shape. I was told that abundance of these trees is to be met with in Persia. These mountains produce a great many curious plants. Among those which struck me most, there is one that may be justly called the vegetable hedge-hog. This plant forms a lump of almost a foot and a half in diameter. It is a little convex, of a beautiful green color, and full of hard sharp prickles, which render it impenetrable.

Here we found only a few small streams of water, which afforded some relief to our camels. The soil of this country is stony, and produces nothing but some prickly shrubs, scattered here and there. In these wild and dismal regions the ear is never delighted by the voice of any of the feathered tribe; and the majestic silence of nature which I had so often observed in the desert every where prevails. Having lain down here to enjoy a little repose, I heard a humming noise like that made by a spinning wheel. I immediately got up, and following the sound, arrived at a prickly shrub, upon which I perceived an insect of the *aptera* kind, of the length and thickness of the thumb, of a black color on the back, and yellow under the belly; but I afterwards saw some of the same species, which on their backs had two yellow bands, a little spotted. Its body is composed of seven or eight circular belts laid one over the other, which serve it as a coat of mail; its head, which is of a pale yellow color, is large, and almost square; and it has two round lively eyes, half a line in diameter. Its face above the eyes is marked with small black specks: it has two antennæ about an inch in length, and four small trunks. It is provided

* Tom. IV. p. 10.

† I think he here meant to say *Alavend*.

with six claws of a yellowish grey color, and spotted like the space above the eyes. On its back there is a kind of hood, three fourths of an inch in length, which adheres to the head, and which has no inconsiderable resemblance to those worn by the nuns. It covers part of its back and sides, and forms only one piece. When it hums it raises this hood, and discovers below two small round bodies like cymbals; one of which covers the other a little. These two bodies rise up and move with great rapidity. This insect does not leap, and finds great difficulty to escape.

In this solitary spot I gave myself up to reflection. Behold then, said I, the environs of that famous city, the name of which resounded throughout the whole universe. The desert spots around it, contrasted with its delightful gardens, render the first view of it still more surprising. No grand highway, no avenue, no river leads to it, for I do not reckon the *Zenderoud*, which has but a short course; and had I not known that Ispahan was at the distance of a day's journey, I should never have imagined that I was near a city, which in the last century was immense. Ispahan is like the Elysian fields, the approach to which, together with the gloomy water of the river *Stryx*, exhibited something terrible. This reflection called forth another which I had made long before. How came it to pass that some of the most famous cities of the East existed in deserts? I do not speak merely of Ispahan, which is rather a modern than an ancient city, and which is perhaps indebted for all its grandeur and celebrity to the river *Zenderoud*, that waters its environs. It is natural to suppose that this situation has been preferred on account of the great scarcity of rivers in Persia; but the famous Babylon, tho' built on a river much renowned, stood in a desert, unless we suppose, as I am inclined to think, that the bed of the *Tigris*, and that of the *Euphrates* being much shallower than they are at present, were united in

many places by a great number of canals, which rendered the land much fitter for cultivation.

Hella, on the *Euphrates*, still supplies provisions, it is true, to a great part of Bagdad; but what is the modern Bagdad in comparison of the ancient Babylon? If we reflect then on the grandeur and magnificence of Bagdad, under the Caliphs, how can we believe that these sovereign pontiffs should have neglected Tekrit or Samara, in Mesopotamia, in a climate rendered temperate by its mountains: that they should have come hither to found this city, celebrated in their time, and transferred the seat of their vast and powerful empire to a burning desert scorched by the rays of the sun? The situation of Palmyra is still more surprising: at the distance of three days journey from Damascus, one is astonished to see the splendor of granite and marble, in a place destitute of water, except what was conveyed to it by aqueducts. The city of Ispahan cannot be seen at a great distance, because it is hid by the trees of the numerous gardens which surround it. The first time I passed through it I had not leisure to examine it with proper attention. Being in a great haste to get to the borders of the *Caspian* sea, I took advantage of the first caravan that set out for *Cashbin*. In the course of this journey, I observed that there is a great difference between the state of Persia at present, and what it was an hundred years ago. Chardin, in his third volume, besides the pompous descriptions of *Cashbin*, *Koum*, and *Cashan*, which he has given, relates, that on the same route which I pursued, he traversed charming and fertile plains, covered with villages, upon which I saw nothing but deserted cities, the melancholy remains of habitations, and lands for the most part uncultivated. Though Chardin, it is true, reports what he saw in a very natural manner, and gives an air of truth to every thing he says, it is easy to perceive, in the course of his work, that he is a little too much prejudiced

prejudiced in favor of Persia. Sometimes even he exaggerates respecting the goodness and serenity of the air, to which he ascribes wonderful effects, such as the great light produced by the stars in the night; the vivacity of dyes and colours, the whiteness of linen, and a thousand other properties of the like kind. That I may not have occasion to recur again to the same object, I shall here remark, that it was from a want of observation that Chardin pretends, that the stars do not twinkle in Persia. The sky in Chaldea is fully as serene, yet, by being accustomed to sleep on a terrace, I had an opportunity of perceiving, that the stars twinkle there even till about the height of forty-five degrees, and that from thence to the zenith their twinkling is not sensible. This twinkling is much stronger in winter and spring than in summer: I do not think, therefore, that the sky in Chaldea is much finer than that of France. Since my return to Paris, I observed the stars on the observatory of the Military Academy, and I made Mr. de la Lande observe, that the Lyre and the Eagle, which were upon the meridian, did not twinkle, and that the twinkling of other stars did not rise above forty or forty-five degrees. I might, I imagine, have described the climate of Persia before I went thither, by judging that it could not be drier than that which I inhabited; but I ought to be circumspect in censuring a man who resided long in the country, and whose description entitles him to confidence. Chardin seems also to have exaggerated a little, when he says, that the stars alone give sufficient light for people to travel, and to know each other.* During the journeys which I made in the night time, I never observed that effect. People know each other, it is true, at a near distance, but perhaps, rather by their dress, their gait, and the manner in which they are mounted, or any thing else, than by their

figure. This, however, is nothing extraordinary, since the case is the same in Europe. With regard to the great beauty of the sky in Persia, I am not of the same opinion with Chardin, when he expresses himself thus: "The beauty of the sky in Persia, I can neither forget nor pass over in silence; one would almost say, that the heavens there are more elevated, and of a different color, from what they are in our foggy climates of Europe." This appears to me a little too general. If he means to speak of the northern part of our climates, he is in the right, for he might then compare with it the serenity of the air in Spain and Italy, which are much nearer us; but, for my part, I found the beautiful nights at Paris equally delightful as those at Bagdad or Ispahan. The incontestible advantage which these climates has over ours, is that continuance of fine weather, that pure air which one breathes on the terraces, and that beautiful aspect of the heavens, known in Europe to philosophers and astronomers only. In the East every body enjoys it, and travellers who admire it must pay attention to those accessory circumstances, which, without their perceiving it, excite the most pleasing sensations.

The first city on the road from Ispahan to Cashbin is Kachan, where I experienced a very great heat on the 16th of June. The water here is disagreeable, and the air appeared to me to be unwholesome, if we may be allowed to judge from the pale, livid complexions of the inhabitants. This city is not what it was in the time of Chardin, though it is still a place of considerable note. The *bazars*, or markets, are beautiful, and extremely long. In this place I think there is more and better kitchen utensils manufactured, than in any other part of Persia. I went through one *bazar*, which was very long, well covered, lighted from above, and containing

* Tom. IV. p. 21.

almost nothing but braziers shops. In Turkey and Persia it is customary to manufacture all metals, and even horse-shoes, by cold hammering. This labor is tedious and fatiguing, but the different articles acquire a much greater solidity. The road from Isfahan to Kachan employs four days, and proceeds due north.

From Kachan I travelled to Koum, keeping twenty degrees to the West. This city no longer corresponds with the description given of it by Chardin, except in its famous mosques or

tombs, which are, however, kept in very bad repair. On quitting this dismal spot, I crossed the valley of marine salt mentioned by Chardin, the salt of which is in several places an inch in thickness, and well crystallized. From this valley you behold mount *Tefsin*,* or the Enchanted, which is remarkable for nothing but the childish tales told of it by the Persians: a small river flows in the neighbourhood, the water of which is extremely heavy and brackish.

[To be concluded in our next.]

DESCRIPTION OF CARLSCRONA AND RUNNEBY, IN SWEDEN:

BY A DUTCH OFFICER.

CARLSCRONA, the capital of the province of Blekingen, and the residence of the governor, is situated on the shore of the Baltic, and built on a large rock, which forms an island. Charles XI. by whom it was founded, honoured it with his name, and gave it the privilege of being a free town.† To arrive at it, one must pass two other islands, which are joined to the continent by large bridges. On these two islands there are two suburbs, which are pretty extensive, but as they are inhabited only by the lower classes of people, they are ill-built and dirty. This, however, is not the case with the town itself, which is well built, though the greater part of the houses are of wood. Several of them consist of three stories, ornamented with sculpture and colonades, and so neatly painted, that they exhibit a very handsome appearance. Great pains are bestowed upon the embellishment of this place, and no expence is spared to render it in time one of the prettiest towns in Sweden. A church, built at one of its extremities, towards the dock-yard, will contribute much to ornament it, as well as the

square, in the centre of which it is erected. This square is very extensive, and, according to the plan laid down, will be bordered by several beautiful edifices. Whilst I was at Carlscona, workmen were still employed in levelling it, and during my residence there, I every day heard explosions, occasioned by their blowing up the rocks, which rendered it rugged and uneven. The same operation was performed in different streets, where the rock rose in many places into points disagreeable to the sight, which were inconvenient for foot travellers, and prevented the use of carriages. Few of the streets are paved, and as you tread upon the bare rock, walking here is extremely fatiguing. The inhabitants of Carlscona pretend that Blekingen is the most beautiful province in the whole kingdom. I am not, however, entirely of the same opinion; for towards Smoland it appears to be very mountainous, but towards Scandia the country becomes level, exhibits every mark of fertility, and is covered with beautiful trees, and among others the oak. I saw also several flourishing estates belonging to dis-

* From this mountain we have borrowed the Persian word *Talisman*.

† A town or city which has a public magazine or repository for goods.

ferent proprietors, ornamented with mansions, which at a distance seemed to be so many castles. These houses for the most part are built of wood, and have a magnificent aspect. This province maintains no land soldiers, but it is obliged to furnish a regiment of marines. The marine militia, dispersed throughout different parts of Sweden, amount to about 13,000 men, of whom no more than a thousand are employed in the time of peace, or when they are not exercised. The garrison of Carlscrona consists of about sixteen hundred men, divided into three companies. As I was furnished with two letters of recommendation, one to Mr. Pylgardt, a rich merchant, who was honoured with the title of patron of the mines; and the other to Rear-Admiral Chapman, director of the dock-yard, I was received by both these gentlemen in the politest manner. Having signified to the latter, that I had come to Carlscrona partly with a view to see the works at the dock-yard, and the new dock, which I had heard so much celebrated, he promised to procure me admission to them next morning, and in the mean time permitted me to examine the plans of them drawn by himself. Rear-Admiral Chapman is a gentleman as much valued for his personal qualities as for his abilities, which raised him to his present station. He is much respected, and the Swedes entertain a high opinion of him, and particularly with regard to his skill in constructing ships. He has invented a new form for the hulls, and it is asserted, that all vessels built after his model, are infinitely better sailers than others. He has written a treatise on naval affairs, which is held in great estimation.

Next day he was so obliging as to send an officer to me, who had served in Holland under Mr. Dedel, and who bestowed the highest praises on his old captain, whose character and abilities he greatly extolled. The officer, who, by Admiral Norr-Ånker's permission, conducted me to

the dock, and the port of Stockholm, had also been in the Dutch service, and had sailed in the Zephyr, under the command of Mr. Van Oyen. It shewed a very polite attention in these two admirals, to procure me guides, who had served an apprenticeship in our republic, and who spoke Dutch.

They conducted me to the port, which is capacious, very commodious, and surrounded by docks. Vessels out of commission are moored here close to a long bridge, which affords one the pleasure of walking across the whole fleet. I counted here twenty vessels, comprehending ships of the line and frigates, among which I saw one of 100 guns, one of 96, one of 84, two of 74, and several of from 50 to 60. I saw nine vessels which had been constructed in the course of four years. Five of these nine were entirely finished, and sitting out; the other four were launched, but not rigged. There were several others on the stocks, either begun or having their inside timbers put together. One in particular was pointed out to me, all the parts of which having been prepared before hand, was constructed in the space of six weeks. The plan for renewing the Swedish navy was formed four years ago; part of 1782 was employed in procuring and preparing the materials, and in 1783 vessels began to be built. It is intended to continue to construct four ships annually, until the navy shall be put on a respectable footing. To defray the expence incurred by the execution of this plan, the king has suspended the half of the works at the new dock, until the navy shall be in that state which is desired. I saw every thing relating to the docks, and my conductor was so polite as to point out to me what was principally worthy of notice. The most perfect order seems to prevail here. After this we went to see the new dock, of which I formed a very high idea, from what I had heard; but I confess that what I saw far surpassed my expectation.

This

This is a work worthy of the ancient Romans: workmen have been employed on it for twenty-nine years, and a considerable length of time will still be necessary before it can be finished. At the entrance of the dock there is a basin cut out in the solid rock, about 50 feet in depth, and so large that four men of war may be loaded or unloaded together along its quays, which are built of cut stone. From this basin each vessel may enter its lodge by means of large sluices, and canals of communication. Twenty of these lodges are destined for ships of the line, and ten for frigates.

One of these lodges, with its canal and sluice, is entirely finished. The bottom of it is cut out in the rock, and the sides are built of cut stone, joined together with Pozzolane, which is a kind of cement, brought from Italy at a very great expence. The bottom of it is shaped like the keel of a vessel. Along each side of the lodge there are two rows of steps, which serve for supporting beams and scaffolding when the vessel is dry, and has need of being repaired. The walls which support the roof are of cut stone, joined with the same kind of cement as before. These walls, which are at least twenty feet in thickness to the top, where they must be on a level with the upper deck of the vessel, separate the different lodges. At that height they are converted into platforms, which communicate with the interior part of the lodge, by means of large arched windows. These platforms are intended to receive the guns of each vessel, which may be conveyed in or taken out through these windows, constructed in such a manner as to be opened or shut according to circumstances. The roof is of wood, covered on the outside with large plates of iron, and formed so as to serve as a fulcrum to different levers, employed in loading or unloading the vessel. The sluice of communication is made with so much art, that the small force of two feet of water raises it, and makes it

turn. When the canal and lodge have received the requisite quantity of water, the vessel enters; and when it may be necessary to leave it dry, a communication at the bottom of the lodge is opened by a machine made expressly for that purpose, and the water runs into a basin much lower than the lodge, and cut out also in the rock, from which it is conveyed into the basin before-mentioned by means of a windmill. Whilst I was here, workmen were employed in constructing a second lodge. The first may serve as a specimen of the magnificence of the whole work. When finished, these lodges will form a vast semicircle, but, according to every appearance, they will never be brought to perfection. The immense sums which government is obliged to expend, will perhaps induce them, instead of finishing this, to complete rather the old dock, which will be of as much utility as the new, though ships cannot be laid up there under cover, and in lodges.

It is very doubtful, whether vessels preserved in this manner last longer than others. Even supposing that ships sheltered from the inclemencies of the weather, are less subject to rot than those which remain in the open air, it is to be enquired, whether the millions expended in constructing these lodges, sluices, basins, canals, &c. and the repairs, which all these require, can be compensated by the savings gained by keeping vessels in this manner.

The person who suggested the first idea of this new dock, which was begun in the reign of the late king, is a very old man, of the name of Thunberg. He has a son, who is reckoned to be equally expert as his father. This Thunberg has the direction of the works and sluices, which have been constructed along the Gotha. The old dock was begun in 1715, after the plan of Polheim the engineer, and finished in 1724. It is a kind of canal, 350 feet in length, and nearly 30 in depth, dug

entirely out of the rock. It is situated between the port and the new dock, and communicates on the one side with the dock-yard and the port, and the other with the sea, by two canals, sufficiently large for a first-rate man of war to enter or go out. These canals are shut by large sluices. Before that which opens a communication to the sea, there is a piece of machinery, very ingeniously constructed, which defends it from the efforts of a high tide. When a ship is brought in here, and when it is necessary to leave her dry, in order to be hove down, the sluices are shut, and by means of an immense pump, put in motion by several men or some horses, the dock is rendered perfectly dry in the space of twelve hours. The dykes, sluices, canals, and mills, which the Dutch industry has executed, are justly admired, yet, when we consider that all this is cut out of the solid rock, we are obliged to confess, that our works are nothing in comparison of these, which, perhaps, are not equalled by any in Europe.

The entrance of the port of Carlscrona is easy on account of its great depth, and it is so large as to be capable of containing an hundred ships of the line. It is defended by two very strong forts, well mounted with artillery, which are so planted, that when fired, their shot cross each other. These forts, the one called *Kongsbolm*,* and the other *Drottning-lia*,† are situated upon rocks in the sea, and could sink any ship which might attempt to pass without their permission.

I saw in the harbour a small squadron of six ships, mounting from 60 to 70 guns each, and three frigates, all ready to sail. This squadron afforded exercise for the conjectures of the politicians. Some believed that it was destined for the service of the Empress of Russia,‡ whilst others pretended that it would be employed

by the Dutch. All these conjectures were, however, proved to be false, for it afterwards appeared, that this fleet was intended only for a naval review, which took place in the presence of his majesty.

The sailors belonging to the garrison of Carlscrona are employed in different works in the dock-yard, when they are not obliged to be on board their vessels. The greater part of the officers are men of great experience, and must naturally be so, since, if they wish for promotion, or to be held in any estimation, they must travel, and serve for some time in foreign countries, and particularly in those states, which are carrying on war. This, doubtless, is an excellent regulation, and must tend greatly to procure good naval officers to Sweden. I quitted Carlscrona, delighted with the town, and its inhabitants, as well as with all the works, which I greatly admired.

Three miles thence I stopped at a large village called Runneby, situated in Blekingen, half way between Carlscrona and Carlsham, which is celebrated for its market, and which appeared to me to be in a very flourishing condition. At the distance of half a league from this place, the little river of Aune forms a very singular cataract through rocks, which exhibit nothing but devastation and ruin. The water precipitates itself between two enormous fragments of rock, which appear to have once formed only one mass, and which at present are at the distance of twenty or thirty feet from each other. They stand exactly parallel, and seem to be 40 or 50 feet in height. The one is convex in the interior part as the other is concave, and a third of less size lies upon the top of them, which forms a most singular bridge. The road passes over it, and appears truly awful, on account of its situation, and the horrible noise occasioned by the efforts of the river, which throws

* The King's Island.

† The Queen's Rock.

‡ The author was in Sweden in the year 1785.

itself with great violence through the vacuum formed by these three masses. Below the cataract are found immense shelves of rock, around which the water in some places is upwards of forty feet in depth. Here I was in great danger of losing my life, for as I was descending with much difficulty and danger, and jumping from one stone to another, in order to find a proper point of view for taking a sketch of this picturesque scene, I had the misfortune to fall, and had not my guide, by laying hold of me, given

me an opportunity of clinging to the point of a rock, I should have tumbled down the precipice, and been either drowned, or dashed to pieces on the rocks by the force of the current. This place, so remarkable for the different parts of the rock, which are concave on the one side, and convex on the other, evidently announces that an earthquake or some other convulsion must have occasioned here the most dreadful ravage. This river, which is not large, throws itself into the Baltic, near Runneby.

LETTER FROM ABBE TESTA TO M. DE LA LANDE, ON THE
STATE OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY AT ROME, FOR THE TWO LAST
CENTURIES, AND ON THE CONDEMNATION OF GALILEO.

April 20, 1790.

I HAVE the honour to send you, Sir, a Memoir just published by Abbe Calandrelli, Professor of Mathematics in the Roman College, on the subject of a paratonnerre, or electrical conductor, which he has placed by order of the Pope, on the Quirinal palace at Rome. On perusing it, you will readily perceive, that the learned and industrious professor is unacquainted with nothing that relates to the theory of electricity, or the precaution to be taken in constructing similar machines for guarding edifices from the effects of lightning. I doubt not your being satisfied with it, and that your suffrage will afford me a fresh argument against those who believe, and endeavour to persuade others, that the science of natural philosophy is altogether neglected and proscribed at Rome. What we are most strongly reproached with, though it is now of ancient date (1633), is the condemnation of Galileo, the circumstances of which are exaggerated, and its injustice aggravated. I know not how often, since I have dwelt in Paris, I have heard this event cited as a demonstration of the ignorance of the court of Rome, and its hatred to learning. Permit me, Sir, to take this opportunity of entering into some particulars relative to a subject that

so deeply wounds the honour of my country. I shall produce well-known and incontestible facts, which will no doubt be sufficient to undeceive many. Your love of astronomy, and the particular zeal for the glory of the great Galileo, which you displayed when at Rome, assure me that you will not be indifferent to some eclaiarcissement of a part of his history.

The first Academy that proposed the revival and improvement of physics and natural history, renouncing with a noble boldness, the reveries of the schools, and employing only observation and experience in the study of nature, was the Academy of the Lincei, founded at Rome by Frederic Cesi, in 1603. Martin Fogel, a learned German, had collected some memoirs of the history of this Academy, but he died before he had finished his work. Leibnitz purchased his manuscript, and afterwards deposited it in the library of the Princes of Wolfenbuttle, where it now is. Jean Bianchi, or Janus Plancus, a skilful naturalist of Rimini, known by his discovery of the *cornea Ammonis* in the Adriatic sea, procured a copy of this MS. enriched it with his own enquiries, and published it under the title of *Notitia Linceorum*, before the 2d edition of the *Phytobasanon* of Fabius Colonna, printed at Florence in 1744.

For a just idea of what natural philosophy owes to this Academy, I must refer to that memoir; contenting myself here with enumerating the names and works of a few of its most distinguished members.——F. Cesi, its founder, was author of the learned tracts, entitled, *De Celo, de Metallis, de Prodigis, Apiarum, & Tabulae Phytophicae*. He broke with a bold hand the solid spheres with which the Ptolomean system had loaded the heavens. He first employed the microscope to observe the seeds of plants, whilst Francis Stelluti, his associate, was the first to examine insects with the same instrument. He first gave the names of telescope and microscope to those instruments which still bear them, and which he learnt to construct with his own hands. He employed himself, in concert with his Academicians, in publishing and enriching the grand work of Ant. Hernandez on the Natural History of Mexico. Death prevented him from committing to the press a work, still existing in MS. entitled, *Theatrum Naturæ*. John Baptist Porta was also a *Lincoo*, and all the world knows how much natural philosophy and optics are indebted to that philosopher. He was the first who employed himself on condensing air, and was the inventor of the air-gun, which in a few years became common throughout Italy. John Fabri was the first to combat the generally adopted opinion of the production of animals by putrefaction, in which he was followed by Redi and Malpighi, who gave it the final blow. Thus Fabia Colonna preceded Tournesot, who confessed that his system of plants had been already invented and proposed by this *Lincoo*, and by And. Cesalpini. Fabius gave the name of *petala*, to the leaves of flowers, which they have still retained; and first demonstrated, that fossil bones, and shells, found on mountains far distant from the sea, are the remains of real animals, and not the sport of nature, as they at that time supposed. But to name all the illustrious men whose labours and dis-

coveries have given celebrity to the Academy of the *Lincoi* would be too tedious; suffice it, that the great Galileo was so proud of his association with it, that the sole title he boasts at the head of all his works, is that of *Lincoo*. Having grown blind in his old age, he frequently styled himself in joke, *una lincoo creca*. The discourse on comets of Mario Guiducci, secretary to the same academy, was the origin of the disputes which afterwards arose between Galileo and his enemies, whose hatred was not appeased but by the condemnation of that great astronomer. The history of the *Lincoi*, being so connected with that of Galileo, I know not how the celebrated historian of astronomy, Mr. Bailly, speaking of the foundation of modern academies, forgot this, which preceded them all, and which by its example taught philosophers the true means of cultivating the study of nature. The academy could not but have derived new lustre from the pen of so profound and eloquent a writer.

The Cardinal Francis Barberini succeeded F. Cesi in the Presidentship of the academy; but at the death of its founder, who, by his knowledge and example, was, as it were, its soul, the zeal and industry of its members slackened. This gave Mr. Ciampini the idea of establishing another academy; which he did under the name of *Physico-Mathematical*, in 1667, at the instance of Cardinal Michael Angelo Ricci, one of the best geometers of his time. It was executed under the auspices of Queen Christina, who was then at Rome, making Italian verses with Abbe Guidi, a famous poet, ardently cultivating natural philosophy, and passing whole nights in observing the heavens with Cassini, of whose health she was so careful, as frequently to cover his head with a handkerchief, to defend it from the air; a circumstance with which that astronomer was sensibly affected, as related by himself in a manuscript account of his life, now in the possession of Count Cassini. The new Roman academy acquired great reputation

reputation from its commencement, and those of Paris and London were desirous of its correspondence. Mr. Ciampini was an indefatigable man, as appears from the numerous list of his works, of which I shall only mention his essays on earthquakes, on the Amianthus, and on a new manner of constructing optic tables, invented by him, and his observations on the comet of 1681, ever celebrated for the calculations of Newton, and the philosophical reveries to which it afterwards gave birth. Ciampini had for associates Alphonso Borelli, Francis Bianchini, Montanari, and Paul Boccone; alone sufficient to give lustre to any academy. How far the two former excelled in geometry and astronomy is well known, but few are acquainted with the extent of their skill in natural history.—Borelli has given us the meteorology of Mount Etna, and a history of its eruptions, in which respect he was the precursor of M. le Commandeur de Dolomieu, who has lately described the volcanic products of that mountain as an able naturalist. Bianchini made some learned enquiries concerning the Lake of Albano, the spring-waters of Rome, and the fires of Pietramala, which Mr. Spallanzani and the Chevalier Volta have lately discovered to be occasioned by inflammable air, formed and spontaneously accended in that place. At that time a taste for natural history was most prevalent with us. Of this the Roman Ephemerides are a sufficient proof. Many cabinets of natural history were also formed, the most excellent of which was that of Father Kircher, which still exists, and has lately been augmented by Cardinal Zelada, a man unacquainted with no branch of science or literature.

Such was the ardour, Sir, with which physics were cultivated amongst us, whilst the unfortunate Swammerdam could not find a single person in all France to purchase his insects and anatomical preparations. Before I quit this article I ought to observe, that a taste for cabinets of natural history prevailed at Rome long before the

time of the academy of the *Linces*, The *Metalloteca Vaticana* of Mich. Mercati sufficiently proves this. He was employed by Sextus V. to form a collection, of which he wrote an account, that was not published till 1717. Mr. Lancisi was the editor, and notes on it were written by Mr. Affalti, Professor of Chemistry. In it the figures of crystals, and artificial crystals of alum are spoken of; and it is surprising, that Mr. Romé de l'Isle has not mentioned it in his *Crystallography*.

Whilst the academy of Mr. Ciampini was so successfully employed in the promotion of natural philosophy, and enjoyed a well-deserved reputation, it had at Florence a rival surpassing it in celebrity;—I speak of the academy *Del Cimento*, founded in 1657 by Leopold de Medicis. For the honour of Rome, however, its first successes were owing to the exertions of Michael Angelo Ricci, a Roman. This Ricci was so skilled in physics, that Borelli would admit no other arbitrator of a dispute which he had with Steph. de Angelis and Michael Manfredi, on the subject of his work *De Vi Percussionis*. The merit and reputation of Ricci determined Innocent XI. to give him a Cardinal's hat, notwithstanding his modesty led him to refuse that honour. This homage paid to science in the person of Ricci, little accords with the calumnious falsehood broached by the enemies of the court of Rome, that Clement IX. would not grant the Cardinalship to Leopold de Medicis, upon condition of his suppressing the academy *Del Cimento*. Mr. Fabroni, director of the University of Pisa, well known by his *Vitæ Illustrium Italarum*, credited this account; but he has since retracted, and furnished authentic proofs of its imposture. How could any one thus slander the memory of a pontiff who studied philosophy under Castelli, who protected Galileo to the utmost of his power, who did not part with Cassini to Louis XIV. but with extreme regret, who saved Father Riccioli from the tricks of an Inquisitor, and finally, who

who had formed the project of establishing at Rome that very academy afterwards founded by Ciampini.

Whilst natural history and physics were cultivated at Rome with such success, astronomy and mathematics were taught there by men of the first rank in learning. The works of Lucas Valerius, on the centre of gravity, and quadrature of the parabola, prove, that he was not unworthy the title of *Mathematicus sublimis*, conferred on him by Galileo. The doctrine of the centre of gravity was carried to its highest perfection by the famous Guldini. Castelli, the friend of Galileo, may be considered as the father of Hydraulics. Toricelli, Borelli, and Ricci, were his disciples, the former of whom succeeded him in the Mathematical chair.

Since the reform of the calendar, which will render the name of Gregory XIII. immortal, Rome has ever possessed Astronomers of celebrity. Hence France received the father of its astronomy, Cassini. There is the noblest meridian in the world, traced by Bianchini, and rendered famous by his observations. There was written the first commentary ever published on Newton's *Principia*, whilst his divine system was so strongly combated in France by the zealous defenders of the Vortices of Descartes. After the famous expedition of the French Academicians to the Pole and Equator, the Pope's territories were the first in Europe in which a degree of the Meridian has been measured. Whilst Fathers Boscovich and Maire were employed on this at Rome, the Commentators of Newton were determining the length of the pendulum there. Father Beccaria, who afterwards measured a degree in Piedmont, explained and improved the theory of electricity; and Donati, to whom we are indebted for a beautiful history of the Adriatic, travelled, by the Pope's orders, to collect observations on natural history, in the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. Benedict Stay still lives, and enjoys the same he has acquired by that poem which has procured him

the just title of the Lucretius of the Newtonian Philosophy. To return to Galileo, the true theory of comets was known at Rome even in his time: this his disputes on their nature and origin sufficiently prove. He was in an error; but by the superiority of his genius, he overpowered and covered with ridicule his adversaries, who from that time vowed his destruction.

Genius and great talents have ever found enemies; but since the condemnation of Galileo has been particularly cited as the height of ignorance and superstition, permit me to relate a few particulars, which will shew the slight foundation of those reproaches. Galileo went thrice to Rome;—the first time in 1611, to consult the philosophers of that capital concerning his discoveries, and to hear their opinions of them. There he soon acquired the friendship of Cardinal Monti, of the Jesuit Clavius, who had so great a part in the correction of the Calendar, and particularly of Fred. Cesi, who was eager to receive him into his Academy. During his first abode at Rome, he received every token of the highest esteem and sincerest friendship. He went thither a second time in 1615. The superiority of his talents had already begun to make him enemies. With these he entered into disputes on the nature of comets, the spots in the sun, &c. omitting nothing to confound them and turn them into ridicule. His *Saggiatore*, of which Father Grassi was the object, is a *chef d'œuvre* of elegance and address. Never were the dangerous weapons of irony and sarcasm handled with more dexterity. The laugh was excited against his enemies, but their jealousy was converted into an implacable hatred, and they thought of nothing but vengeance. The very next year they procured an order for him no longer to teach the motion of the earth, in spite of the efforts of Cardinals Orsini and Monti, who avowed themselves his protectors. Let us observe, that the preceding year this very system had been acknowledged to contain nothing contrary to

the faith. He then departed for Florence, being recalled by the Grand Duke, his sovereign; and in 1632 he published his celebrated dialogues on the Mundane System, in which he collected all the force of reasoning, and bitterness of wit, to complete the overthrow of his enemies. Disobedience was immediately their cry. It was insinuated to Pope Urban VIII. who had hitherto been a great patron of Galileo, and had even made verses in his praise, that he was meant by the person of Simplicius, characterised as an ignorant and presumptuous scholastic, in the dialogues above mentioned. This succeeded; and in 1633 Galileo was obliged to return to Rome to give an account of his doctrine. There he resided at the house of the Grand Duke's Ambassador. His friends, amongst whom was the Master of the Sacred Palace, prepared for his defence; but the Astronomer destroyed the effects of their good offices, by his raileries and satires against his adversaries. In vain did the Ambassador urgently intreat him to be silent. The minds of several were irritated;—his enemies conquered, and on the second of April he was obliged to remove to the house of the Inquisition. But let me request you to attend to the following particulars:—The Fiscal of the inquisition gave up to him his own apartment; the Tuscan Minister supplied his table; and he had the liberty of walking about the inner-court of the palace, of writing to his friends, and of receiving their visits. At the end of the month he made his recantation; after which he left the Inquisition, and went again to reside at the house of the Ambassador. This is a faithful account of the imprisonment, cruelties, and barbarities, exercised against Galileo by the Inquisition of Rome. That astronomer owed the treatment he received, and which, as has been seen, was very different from what has been so unfoundedly supposed, only to the obstinate hatred of his enemies, and the imprudent rashness of his own conduct. As to his doc-

trine, it had been declared orthodox the year before, as we have already observed. The Copernican System had been taught publicly at Rome with success by Copernicus himself, when he was Professor at the College. He imbibed the first idea of this system from Dominic Maria de Ferrara, when he attended his course of astronomy at Bologna. It is well known that he dedicated his work to Paul III. and that he was excited to publish it by Schomberg Cardinal of Capua, who offered to defray the expence. Cardinal Cusa, who preached the necessity of reforming the Calendar to the Lateran Council, received no rebuke for reviving and maintaining, almost a century before Copernicus, the opinion of the ancients respecting the motion of the earth. But an incontestible proof, that, in the affair of Galileo, his person only was attacked, and not his system, is, that Pope Urban VIII. obtained Father Castelli from the Grand Duke, by pressing solicitations, to make him Professor of Mathematics in the College of Rome, though he was well known to be an intimate friend of Galileo, and a zealous defender of his opinions. The same Pontiff favoured and esteemed Virginio Cesarini, Member of the Academy of the Lincei, who from the extent of his knowledge, and his great youth, was deemed another Pico de la Mirandola. Cesarini had cultivated Latin and Italian poetry with success, as is obvious from his Elegies, in the first of which he mentions the earth's movement, whence he takes occasion to make a sublime eulogium on Galileo, whose intimate friend he was. This circumstance, however, made no alteration in the esteem and attachment which the Pope retained for him.

In the present century the Popes have never ceased to protect, and load with benefits, the celebrated institution of Bologna, which has pursued the science of natural philosophy with equal zeal and success. But we shall now, no doubt, see it flourish more than ever at Rome, Bologna, and

and throughout the whole Ecclesiastical State, from the protection of the reigning Pope, and the activity of Cardinal Zelada, his minister, who,

amidst the most important occupations, has no amusements but the study of astronomy, natural history, and the noblest monuments of antiquity.

ON THE ATMOSPHERE OF THE PLANETS.

MODERN discoveries in astronomy have opened a wide field for system-building; but before we attempt to explore or erect new systems, we should be well acquainted with our own.

To ascertain the existence of atmospheres in the several planets of our system, and to examine their natures, is a subject well worthy the attention of astronomers, for a planet enjoying an atmosphere, can only render it habitable.

It is a common supposition, that every kind of matter, on the planet Mercury, is in a state of fusion, in consequence of the extremity of heat it must experience from its vicinity to the Sun, and owing to the opposite cause that there can be nothing fluid in Saturn: but surely we need not go so far, to look for such effects: if the distance or nearness of the Sun alone were concerned in producing them, these extremes would be felt in Mars and Venus; nay the earth, removed a few of its diameters nearer to, or farther from the Sun, would experience them: but neither the heat or light of that luminary can be efficient, without the intervention of an Atmosphere; and as that is dense or rare, so will these be augmented or lessened.

Every one knows the effect of rarified air in admitting cold, and of air condensed in conducting heat; and that high mountains, from this cause, are covered with snow, even in the torrid zone, while the heat is insupportable in the valleys: may not the same cause regulate the heat and light of the Sun, in the several planets of our system? Mercury, though so near his orb, will suffer his rays to pass through a very rare atmosphere, without much condensation, while those rays will be collected, as in the focus of a lens, passing through the dense medium of that of Saturn. Thus will

each planet enjoy an equal and sufficient portion of the vivifying influence of their common luminary. Something like this seems to be confirmed by observation; for Mercury and Venus are found to have very rare and serene atmospheres, whilst those of Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, from their moving maculae and ever changing belts, are supposed to be exceedingly dense; and would not the earth, if viewed from a neighbouring planet, exhibit appearances somewhat similar to those of Jupiter? Our equatorial belt would seem bright and serene while near the tropics; and in various parts of the temperate zones, cingula and maculae would appear continually changing; there may even exist some general law of nature to cause this, perhaps somewhat analogous to that which governs the course of the planets, as to the times they move round their centre, in proportion to the distances they are from it.

The Moon was thought to have an atmosphere; but Herschel, by his discoveries of volcanoes on her body, has confuted that opinion; for fire cannot exist without air. But there also seem to be other proofs. In a total eclipse of the Sun, a luminous ring is observed to encircle the dark body of the Moon: now as the plane of the Moon's disk, is apparently larger than that of the Sun, this luminous ring cannot be owing to any part of the Sun not being eclipsed; we must therefore ascribe it to the atmosphere of the Moon absorbing and reflecting the rays of light, as ours does in twilight.

I myself have observed on a clear night, the Moon being in her first quarter, and her unenlightened portion plainly visible to the naked eye, a luminous ring, just perceptible, adhering close to her darkened circumference;

rence; but whither this was a *deceptio* owing to any refraction caused by our air, or the Moon's real atmosphere faintly illuminated, I cannot pretend to say.

The same authority which has denied an Atmosphere to the Moon, denies also meteors and water; and supposes the shaded parts of her disk, to be hollows and deep pits, and not seas; but surely with no great reason: for if resemblances in optics were not so fallacious, even our sea, viewed from an high cliff, has an appearance not unlike those shades that in some parts will seem of a darker hue than others. But further, on examining the Moon just as she enters her third quarter, the shaded parts will be seen separated from those which are totally unenlightened, by a line perfectly even; whereas, the separation of the bright parts will be broken and rugged: now if these were pits and hollows, and not seas, this line of sepa-

ration would not be perfectly even, and would coincide with the arch of the Moon's enlightened limb.

Thus, without indulging any great flights of imagination, we may conclude, that all the planets of our system are as well adapted for the habitation of animals, as this of ours is; that if they contain animals, these must be of a nature similar to such as inhabit our globe, because the materials which compose theirs, and their means of existence, are similar; that supposing the earth to be as a medium in the system, the inferior planets, or those between us and the Sun, may possibly contain animals of a finer organization, and those again beyond our orbit, of a grosser than ours; and, finally, that a part of those animals may be supposed to be rational, as some of their planets are furnished with a splendid paraphernalia of Satellites, which would be of no use to irrational creatures.

Edinburgh, Nov. 9.

W.

EXPERIMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS ON THE DISSOLUTION OF METALS IN ACIDS, AND THEIR PRECIPITATIONS: WITH AN ACCOUNT OF A NEW COMPOUND ACID MENSTRUUM, USEFUL IN SOME TECHNICAL OPERATIONS OF PARTING METALS.

BY JAMES KEIR, ESQ; F. R. S.

(Continued from Page 188.)

PART II.

An Account of a new process for separating silver from copper.

19. THE properties of this liquor, in dissolving silver easily, without acting on copper, have rendered it capable of a very useful application in the arts. Among the manufactures at Birmingham, that of making vessels of silver plated on copper, is a very considerable one. In cutting out the rolled plated metal, into pieces of the required forms and sizes, there are many shreds, or scraps as they are called, unfit for any purpose, but the recovery of the metals, by separating them from each other. The easiest and most economical me-

thod of parting these two metals, so as not to lose either of them, is an object of some consequence to the manufacturers. For this purpose two modes were practised: one, by melting the whole of the mixed metals with lead, and separating them by eliquation and testing; and the second, by dissolving both metals in oil of vitriol, with the help of heat, and by separating the vitriol of silver, which is afterwards to be reduced and purified. In the first of these methods, there is a considerable waste of lead and copper by dissolving it in water, from the vitriol of silver, which is afterwards to be reduced and purified; and in the second, the quantity

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of vitriolic acid employed is very great, as much more is dissipated in the form of volatile vitriolic, or sulphurous acid, than remains in the composition of the two vitriols.

Some years ago, I communicated to an artist the method of effecting the separation of silver and copper, by means of the above-mentioned compound of vitriolic acid, and nitre; and, as I am informed, it is now commonly practised by the manufacturers in Birmingham. I have no doubt but it is much more economical, and it is certainly much more easily executed than any of the other methods: for nothing more is required than to put the pieces of plated metal into an earthen glazed pan: to pour upon them some of the acid liquor, which may be in the proportion of eight or ten pounds of oil of vitriol, to one pound of nitre; to stir them about, that the surfaces may be frequently exposed to fresh liquor, and to assist the action by a gentle heat from 100° to 200° of Fahrenheit's scale. When the liquor is nearly saturated, the silver is to be precipitated from it by common salt, which forms a luteo cornia, easily reducible by melting it in a crucible, with a sufficient quantity of pot-ash; and, lastly, by refining the melted silver, if necessary, with a little nitre thrown upon it. In this manner the silver will be obtained sufficiently pure, and the copper will remain unchanged. Otherwise, the silver may be precipitated in its metallic state, by adding to the solution of silver a few of the pieces of copper, and a sufficient quantity of water to enable the liquor to act upon the copper.

The property which this acid mixture possesses of dissolving silver with great facility, and in considerable quantity, will probably render it an useful menstruum in the separation of silver from other metals: and, as the alchemists have distinguished the peculiar solvent of gold under the title of aqua regis, a name sufficiently distinctive, though founded on a fanciful allusion, so, if they had been ac-

quainted with the properties of this compound, they would probably have bestowed on it the appellation of aqua reginae.

PART III.

The change of properties communicated to the mixture of vitriolic and nitrous acids by phlogistication.

20. The above described compound acid may be phlogisticated in different methods, of which I shall mention three.

1st, By digesting the compound acid with sulphur, by means of the heat of a water bath, the liquor dissolves the sulphur with effervescence, loses its property of yielding white fumes; and if the quantity of sulphur be sufficient, and if the heat applied be long enough continued, it exhibits red nitrous vapours, and assumes a violet colour.

2ndly, If, instead of dissolving nitre in concentrated vitriolic acid, this acid be impregnated with nitrous gas, or with nitrous vapour, by making this gas or vapour pass into the acid, this compound will be phlogisticated, as it contains not the entire nitrous acid, but only its phlogisticated part, or element, the nitrous gas, without the proportion of pure air necessary to constitute an acid. This impregnation of oil of vitriol with nitrous gas, or nitrous vapour, was first described, and some of the properties of the impregnated liquor noticed by Dr. Priestley. (See Experiments and Observations on Air, vol. III. p. 129, and 217.)

3dly, By substituting nitrous ammoniac instead of nitre, in the mixture with oil of vitriol.

21. The compound prepared by any of these methods, but especially by the first and second, differs considerably in its properties, with regard to its action on metals, from the acid described in the first section. It has been observed, that the latter compound has little action on any metals but silver, tin, mercury, and nickel. On the other hand, the phlogisticated compound not only acts on these, but also on several others. It forms with iron

a beautiful rose-coloured solution, without application of any artificial heat, and in time a rose-coloured saline precipitate is deposited, which is soluble in water with considerable effervescence. It dissolves copper, and acquires from this metal, and also from regulus of cobalt, zinc, and lead, pretty deep violet tinges, bismuth and regulus of antimony were also attacked by this phlogisticated acid.

To ascertain more exactly the effects of this phlogisticated acid on some metals, I made the following experiments, with a liquor prepared by making nitrous gas pass through oil of vitriol during a considerable time.

22. To 200 grain-measures of the oil of vitriol impregnated with nitrous gas, put into a retort with a long neck, the capacity of which, including the neck was 1150 grain-measures, I added 144 grains of standard silver, and immersed the mouth of the retort in water, under an inverted jar filled with water, to catch the gas which might be extricated. The acid began to dissolve the silver with effervescence by application of heat: the solution became of a violet colour, and the quantity of nitrous gas received in the inverted jar was 14700 grain-measures, upon weighing the silver remaining, the quantity which had been dissolved was found to be 70 grains, when water was added to the solution, an effervescence appeared, but only a very small quantity of gas was extricated by means of the water, a white saline powder of silver, soluble in a larger quantity of water, was precipitated from the solution. The solution of silver when saturated and undiluted, congeals readily in cool temperatures, and, when diluted to a certain degree with water, gives foliated crystals.

23. In the same apparatus, and in the same manner, 100 grain-measures of this impregnated oil of vitriol were applied to iron. An effervescence appeared without appli-

cation of heat, the surface of the iron acquired a beautiful rose colour, or redness mixed with purple; and this colour gradually pervaded the whole liquor, but disappeared on keeping the retort some time hot in water, notwithstanding a considerable apparent effervescence, the quantity of air expelled into the inverted jar was only 400 grain-measures, of which $\frac{1}{4}$ was nitrous, and the rest phlogisticated, the solution was then poured out of the retort, and the iron, and 200 grains of water were added to it, upon which a white powder was immediately precipitated, which, re-dissolved with great effervescence. When 2000 grain-measures of nitrous gas had been expelled into the inverted jar, without application of heat, the retort was placed in the water bath, the heat of which rendered the effervescence so strong, that the liquor boiled over the neck of the retort, so that the quantity of gas extricated could not be ascertained.

24. In the same manner 11 grains of copper were dissolved in 100 grain-measures of impregnated oil of vitriol. The solution was of a deep violet colour, and at last was turbid. The quantity of nitrous gas expelled into the inverted jar during the operation was 4700 grain-measures, when the copper was removed, and 200 grains of water were added to the solution, an effervescence took place, 1700 grain-measures of nitrous gas were expelled, and the solution then acquired a blue colour.

25. In the same apparatus and manner, 100 grain-measures of the impregnated oil of vitriol were applied to tin, which was thereby diminished in the weight of 16 grains, while the liquor acquired a violet colour, became turbid by the suspension of the calx of tin, and a quantity of nitrous gas was thrown into the inverted receiver equal to 4100 grain-measures, without application of heat, and another quantity equal to 4900 grain-measures,

after the retort was put into the water bath.

26. Mercury added to the impregnated oil of vitriol formed a thick white turbid liquor, which was rendered clear by addition of unimpregnated oil of vitriol. In a little time this mixture continuing to act on the remaining mercury, acquired a purple colour. The mercury acted upon sunk to the bottom of the glass in the form of a white powder, and the purple liquor, when mixed with a solution of common salt in water, gave no appearance of its containing any mercury in a dissolved state.

27. The nitrous gas with which the oil of vitriol is impregnated, shews no disposition to quit the acid by exposure to air; but, on adding water to the impregnated acid, the gas is expelled suddenly with great effervescence, and with red fumes, in consequence of its mixture with the atmospherical air.

Upon adding 240 grains of water to 60 grain measures of impregnated oil of vitriol, 2300 grains of nitrous gas were thrown into the receiver; but as the action of the two liquors is instantaneous, the quantity of gas expelled from the retort, before its neck could be immersed in water, and placed under the receiver, must have been considerable. The whole of the gas, however, was not extricated by means of the water, for the remaining liquor dissolved 5 grains of copper, while 800 measures of nitrous gas were thrown into the retort.

28. The following facts principally are established by the preceding experiments, 1. That a mixture of the vitriolic and nitrous acids in a concentrated state, has a peculiar

faculty of dissolving silver copiously. 2. That it acts upon, and principally calcines tin, mercury, and nickel, the latter of which, however, it dissolves in small quantity, and that it has little or no action in other metals. 3. That the quantity of gas produced, while the metal is dissolving, is greater, relatively to the quantity of metal dissolved, when the proportion of nitre to the vitriolic acid is small than when it is large, and that when the metals are dissolved by mixtures containing much nitre, and with a small production of gas, the solution itself, or the metallic salt formed in it, yields abundance of gas when mixed with water. 4. That dilution with water renders the concentrated mixture less capable of dissolving silver, but more capable of acting on other metals. 5. That this mixture of highly concentrated vitriolic and nitrous acids acquires a purple or violet colour when phlogisticated; either by addition of inflammable substances, as sulphur, or by its action on metals, or by very strong impregnation of oil of vitriol with nitrous gas. 6. That this phlogistication was found to communicate to the mixture the power of dissolving, though in small quantities, copper, iron, zinc, and regulus of cobalt. 7. That water expels from a highly phlogisticated mixture of concentrated vitriolic and nitrous acids, or of oil of vitriol impregnated with nitrous gas, a great part of its contained gas; and that therefore this gas is not capable of being retained in such quantity by dilute as by concentrated acids. Water unites with the mixture of oil of vitriol and nitre, without any considerable effervescence.

SOME ACCOUNT OF BARCELONA, IN SPAIN.

FROM TOWNSEND'S TRAVELS.

THE streets of Barcelona are narrow and crooked, like those of all ancient cities. The old Ro-

man town may still be distinctly traced, occupying a small eminence in the center of the present city, with

with one of its gates, and some of its towers, well preserved. In this are many sarcophagi, altars, images and inscriptions, with a temple of Neptune, all which have been well described by antiquarians. It was here that Ferdinand and Isabella received Columbus, returning from America, and from hence that navigator sailed on his second expedition in the year 1493.

In visiting the churches of Barcelona, an observation is confirmed, which had occurred even in the most contemptible of the country villages south of the Pyrenees. It is evident that all their decorations were invented about the beginning of the sixteenth century, after the gold and silver of America had been brought to Spain, and every altar-piece, with every column, shews that their improvement in taste did not keep pace with their increase of wealth; riches came upon them by surprise, and found them unprepared to make a proper use of the abundant treasure. Hence even the composite and the Corinthian pillars are loaded with new ornaments, and whether fluted or contorted, they are almost hid by the multitude of angels fluttering round them, or by cherubs climbing up the branches; and the whole of this preposterous assemblage is covered with one glare of gold. The present generation is enlightened, and their taste is much refined; yet they want resolution to reform abuses, and to strip off those ornaments to which the blind zeal and devotion of their forefathers have given sanction. One of their best writers has remonstrated, and his remonstrances have engaged the attention of government, to make wise regulations for the future.

They have in this city an academy for the noble arts, open to all the world, in which all who attend are freely taught drawing, architecture, and sculpture, under the direction of D. Pedro Moles, and others, who, like him, excel in the branches they

profess. For this purpose, they have seven spacious halls, furnished at the king's expence, with tables, benches, lights, paper, pencils, drawings, models, clay, and living subjects; they assemble in the morning from ten to twelve, and in the evening from six to eight, in winter, and from eight to ten in the summer.

This academy is well attended; I counted one night upwards of five hundred boys, many of them were finishing designs, which shewed either superior genius, or more than common application. It is not to be imagined that all these boys, or perhaps any of them, are destined to be painters, this was not the intention of government, much less of Count Campomanes, who suggested the institution. Most, if not all these youths, are apprenticed to trades; and it is well imagined, that every other art may receive some assistance from this, whose peculiar property it is to excel in imitation, and much wanted in England. Not only the sculptor, the architect, and the engineer, but the coach-maker, the cabinet-maker, the weaver, nay even the taylor and the haberdasher, may derive great advantages from that accuracy of sight, and that fertility of invention, which are acquired by the practice of drawing and designing. D. Pedro Moles is an artist whose works have been universally admired for the beauty of his stroke, and the force of his expression. It is a pity that the graver was ever taken from his hands; he may perhaps be more usefully employed in superintending this academy, but as an engraver, he would have acquired a more lasting fame, and have made a better provision for his family.

One of the seven halls is fitted up as a nautical school, and is provided with every thing which is needful to teach the art of navigation. The students, who at present are only thirty-six, assemble every morning from eight to ten, and every evening from three to five. Since
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the first establishment of this useful seminary, they have sent out more than five hundred pilots, qualified to navigate a vessel to any quarter of the globe. Equally well furnished with the preceding, and equally well conducted, is the military academy, in which there are three magnificent apartments for the students to pursue their studies, from the first-elements of the mathematics, to the higher branches of their profession.

Besides these institutions for the instruction of such as are devoted to arts or arms, there are not wanting some of more general utility, accessible to all the citizens without distinction. These are a cabinet of natural history, and the public libraries, of which there are four: three general, and the other confined to medicine and surgery; the cabinets belong to D. Jaime Salvador. From the reports of this collection, I had formed high expectations, but I must confess myself dissatisfied; some thirty or forty years ago, it may have been worthy of attention, but the science itself, and the cabinets of the curious are so much improved, that collections, which at remoter periods excited wonder, are in the present day justly regarded with cold indifference. The general libraries are those of the Bishop's College, of the Carmelites, and of the Dominicans. This last I found most worthy of attention, as containing more modern books of value than either of the former. Among these, some of the most considerable were the ruins of Palmira; Raphael's Heads, by Fidanza; Duhalde's China; *Monumens de la Grece*; *Histoire genealogique de la Maison Royale de France*, and des anciens Barons, par le P. Anselme; *Antichita di Ercolano*; *Muratori Theaur. vet. Inscriptionum*; *Numismata Vir. illust. ex Barbatica gente*; *Danubius Pannonico Myticus*. These may serve to shew that the collection is not contemptible. In short,

whatever studies a man may be desirous of pursuing, he will find in one or other of these libraries the best books, to which he may have access six hours every day, excepting holidays. In the convent of the Dominicans, there is one apartment filled entirely with books prohibited by the inquisition, and, in order that no one may be tempted to peruse them, all the vacant spaces are filled with devils cracking human bones; it is to be supposed heretics; lest, however, this sight should not suffice to check a prying disposition, they are well secured by lock and key, and no one has access to these without a special licence. In the cloister of the Dominicans, there are more than five hundred records of sentences passed on heretics, containing their name, their age, their occupation, their place of abode, the time when they were condemned, and the event, whether the party were burnt in person or effigy, or whether he recanted and was saved, not from the fire and the faggot, for then he might relapse, but from the flame of hell; most of these were women. The first date is A. D. 1489, and the last, 1726. Under each inscription there is a portrait of the heretic, some half, others more than three parts devoured by devils. I was so much struck with the fantastic forms which the painters had given to their daemons, and the strange attitudes of the heretics, that I could not resist my inclination to copy some of them, when no one was walking in the cloister. Some time after this, sitting with one of the inquisitors, who did me the honour of a visit, he in a careless manner took up my memorandum book, and as chance would have it, opened precisely on the leaf which contained my drawings: I laughed; he coloured; but not one word escaped from either at the time. Fifteen months after this when I returned to Barcelona, he smiled and said, "you see that I can keep a secret," and

and that we are not strangers to "principles of honour."

During my residence at Barcelona, I had an opportunity of seeing all the courts of the inquisition assembled in a grand procellion to celebrate the feast of St. Pedro-Martyr, their Patron Saint, in the Church of St. Catharine of the Dominicans. Happy had it been for Christendom, if all their festivals had been as innocent as this. It is however, universally acknowledged for the credit of the corps, at Barcelona, that all its members are men of worth, and most of them distinguished for humanity.

Visiting the churches at all hours, whenever any service was performed, I made a party with some friends to hear penitential service in the convent of St. Felipe Neri, on Friday evening of April 28. The first part of the Miserere was no sooner ended, than the doors were shut, the lights were extinguished, and we remained in perfect darkness; at this moment, when the eye could no longer find an object to distract the mind, the attention was awakened by the voice of harmony, for the whole congregation joined

in the Miserere, which they sung with pleasing solemnity; at first with soft and plaintive notes; but having laid bare their backs, and prepared them for the scourge, they all began at the same instant to use the discipline, raising their voices, and quickening the time, increasing by degrees both in velocity and violence, scourging themselves with greater vehemence as they proceeded, and singing louder and harsher, till at the end of twenty minutes, all distinction of sound was lost, and the whole ended in one deep groan. Prepared as I had been to expect something terrible, yet this so far surpassed my expectation, that my blood ran cold, and one of the company, not remarkable for sensibility of nerves, being thus taken by surprise, burst into tears.

This discipline is repeated every Friday in the year, oftener in Lent, and is their daily practice during the holy week. I was not at liberty to ask what advantage they derived, or what benefits they expected to receive from this severity; yet, from the prevalence of vice in Spain, I fear this practice has little if any tendency to reform their morals.

ACCOUNT OF THE BALAGANS AND YOURTS, OR HOUSES, IN KAMTSCHATKA.

FROM LESSEP'S TRAVELS.

THE Kamtschadales lodge in the first during summer, and retreat to the last in winter. As it is thought desirable that they should be brought gradually to resemble the Russian peasants, they are prohibited, in this southern part of Kamtschatka, from constructing any more yourts, or subterraneous habitations; these are all destroyed at present, a few vestiges only remain of them, filled up within, and appear externally like the roofs of our ice-houses.

The balagans are elevated above the ground upon a number of posts, placed at equal distances, and about

twelve or thirteen feet high. This rough sort of colonade supports in the air a platform that serves as a floor to the whole building, which consists of a roof in the shape of a cone, covered with a kind of thatch, or dried grass, placed upon poles fastened together at the top, and bearing upon the rafters. This is at once the first and last story; it forms the whole apartment, or rather chamber; an opening in the roof serves instead of a chimney to let out the smoke, when a fire is lighted to dress their victuals: this cookery is performed in the middle of the room, where they eat and sleep pell-mell.

mell together, without the least disgust or scruple. In these apartments windows are out of the question; there is merely a door, so low and narrow, that it will scarcely suffice to admit the light. The stair-case is worthy of the rest of the building; it consists of a beam, or rather tree, jagged in a slovenly manner, one end of which rests upon the ground, and the other is raised to the height of the floor: it is placed at the angle of the door, upon a level with a kind of open gallery that is erected before it. This tree retains its roundness, and presents on one side something like steps, but they are so inconvenient that I was more than once in danger of breaking my neck. In reality, whenever this vile ladder turns under the feet of those who are not accustomed to it, it is impossible to preserve an equilibrium; a fall must be the consequence, more or less dangerous in proportion to the height; when they wish persons to be informed that there is nobody at home, they merely turn the stair-case with the steps inward.

Motives of convenience may have suggested to these people the idea of building such strange dwellings, which their mode of living renders necessary and commodious. Their principal food being dried fish, which is also the nourishment of their dogs, it is necessary, in order to dry their fish, and other provisions, that they should have a place sheltered from the heat of the sun, and at the same time perfectly exposed to the air. Under the colonades, or rustic porticos, which form the lower part of their balagans, they find this convenience, and there they hang their fish, either to the ceiling or to the sides, that it may be out of the reach of the voraciousness of their dogs. The Kamtschadales make use of dogs to draw their sledges; the best, that is, the most vicious, have no other kennel than what the portico of the balagans affords them, so the posts of

which they are tied. Such are the advantages resulting from the singular modes of constructing the balagans, or summer habitations of the Kamtschadales.

I shall now speak of the yourts, which I have not yet described, deserving as they are of particular attention. These strange houses are sunk in the earth, as I before observed, and the top which appears above ground is like a truncated cone: to form a just idea of them, we must conceive of a large square hole about twelve or fourteen yards in diameter, and eight feet deep; the four sides are lined with joists or boards, and the interstices of these walls are filled up with earth, straw, or dried grass and stones. In the bottom of this hole various posts are fixed, that support the cross beams upon which the roof rests. The roof begins upon a level with the ground, and rises four feet above it; it is two feet thick, has a very gradual slope, and is made of the same materials as the walls. Towards the top is a square opening, about four feet long and three wide, which serves as a passage for the smoke, and an entrance to the yourt, where the women as well as the men go in and out by means of a ladder, or notched beam, that is raised to a level with this opening. There is another very low entrance in one side of the yourt, but it is considered as a kind of disgrace to make use of it. I shall terminate the description of the exterior part of these habitations by adding, that they are surrounded with tolerably high palisades, doubtless as a protection against the gales of wind, or falls of snow; it is said, however, that these enclosures formerly served as ramparts to defend these people against their enemies. We have no sooner descended these savage abodes, than we wish ourselves out again; the view and the smell are equally offensive. The interior part consists of one entire room, about ten feet high; a bench five feet wide, and covered

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Literary Magazine.



THE STATUE OF SENECA.

Published at the Art dealer 1 Nov. 1791 by C. Fortin N° 11 Poulley.

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covered with various skins half worn out, extends all round it; this bench is only a foot from the ground, and commonly serves as a bed for a number of families; I have counted in one yourt more than twenty persons, men, women, and children. They eat, drink, and sleep together; satisfy all the calls of nature without restraint or modesty, and never complain of the noxious air that prevails in these places. It is true, there is a fire almost incessantly. The fire-place is commonly either in the middle of the yourt, or against one of the sides; in the evening they rake the coals in a heap, and shut the entrance of the yourt where the smoke should evaporate, and thus the heat

is concentrated, and kept up during the whole night. By means of a dismal lamp, we discover in one corner of the apartment a wretched image of some faint, shining with grease, and blackened with smoke. It is before these images that the Kamtschadales bow themselves, and offer their prayers. The rest of the furniture consists of seats, and some vessels, made either of wood or the bark of trees. Their cookery utensils are of copper or iron, but they are all disgustingly filthy. The remains of their dried fish are scattered about the room, and the women or the children are continually broiling pieces of salmon skin, which is one of their favourite meats.

A SHORT ACCOUNT OF SENECA.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL ENGRAVING FROM AN ANCIENT STATUE.

LUCIUS Annæus Seneca, was born at Cordova, in Spain, about six years before the Christian æra. He was instructed in eloquence by his father, Hyginus Cæsius, and Asinius Gallus; and in philosophy by Socrion of Alexandria and Photinus, both celebrated stoics. Having practised for some time that abstinence which was enjoined by the Pythagorean sect, that is to say, after having abstained from every thing endowed with life, he devoted himself to the bar, where his pleadings were admired; but fearing to excite the jealousy of Caligula, who aspired also at the glory of being accounted eloquent, he quitted a path which it was very dangerous for him to pursue, under a prince meanly envious. After this he turned his thoughts towards some public office, and obtained that of quæstor. It was imagined that he would have risen much higher, but being accused of carrying on an illicit correspondence with Julia Livilla, the wife of Vinicius, one of his benefactors, this

aspiration, though perhaps unjust, was believed by his enemies. He was therefore banished to the Island of Corsica, and it was there that he wrote his *Treatise on Consolation*, which he addressed to his mother Helvia.

In this exile he remained five years, and had not a revolution at Court occasioned the fall of Messalina, might perhaps have ended his days in it. But when Agrippina married the Emperor Claudius, she recalled Seneca, in order to entrust him with the education of her son Nero, whom she wished to raise to the imperial throne. While this young prince followed the advice, and obeyed the instructions of his preceptor, he was the darling of Rome, but Poppea and Tigellinus having acquired a complete ascendancy over him, he became a disgrace to human nature. Seneca's virtue seemed to be a continued censure of his vices, and on this account he ordered one of his freedmen, named Cleonice, to poison him. This wretch not being able

to accomplish his base purpose, because Seneca, apprehensive of danger, drank nothing but water, Nero involved him in the conspiracy of Piso. Seneca, however, was only suspected, no proof being ever brought against him that he had taken any share in this plot. He was only named by Natalis, one of the principal conspirators, who did not even exhibit a very strong charge against him. He said that he had been sent by Piso to Seneca, to reproach him for not coming to see them, and that Seneca replied, that it was not advantageous for the interest of either party to hold any correspondence together; but that his safety depended on the life of Piso. Granius Silvanus, the tribune of a praetorian cohort was commissioned to inform Seneca what Natalis had deposed, and to ask him if he acknowledged the truth of his relation. Seneca, either by chance or through design, returned that day from Campania, and stopped at a country house which he had in a place four leagues distant from Rome. The tribune arrived there in the evening, and posted guards all around the house. Finding Seneca at table with his wife Paulina, and two friends, he communicated to him the Emperor's orders. Seneca replied, that the relation of Natalis was true; but that for his part he had excused himself merely on account of bad health, and of his fondness for repose and tranquillity; that he had no occasion to make his safety depend upon the life of any individual; that his disposition did not incline him to flattery, and that no one knew him better than Nero, to whom he had exhibited more signs of freedom, than of servitude. When the tribune returned with this answer, which he delivered to Nero in the presence of Poppea and Tigellinus, who formed his privy council when he was in his paroxysms of fury, Nero asked Granius if Seneca was preparing to die. "He shewed no sign

"of fear," replied the officer: "I saw no appearance of dejection either in his words or countenance." "Return then," said the emperor, "and signify to him that he is sentenced to die." The philosopher finding that he was condemned to lose his life, but in whatever manner he himself should chuse, seemed to receive his doom with joy. He requested leave to dispose of the immense wealth which he had amassed, by preaching up the contempt of riches, but this was refused. He then said to his friends, that since it was not in his power to give them part of what he thought he possessed, he would at least leave them his life as a model, and that by closely imitating it, they would acquire among people of worth immortal glory. As he saw them shed tears, he endeavoured to recall to their minds sentiments of firmness, by exhortation, or even by gentle reproaches. "Where," said he to them, "are those maxims of wisdom which you have studied? When then will you make use of those reflections, by which you have endeavoured to secure yourselves against the strokes of fate? Were you ignorant of the cruelty of Nero? After killing his mother and brother, nothing remained but to add to his other crimes the death of him who had the care of his education."—Paulina his wife shed tears. Seneca endeavoured to allay her grief; "Do not," said he, "spend your days in eternal affliction. Keep always in remembrance the virtuous life which I have led. This will be a consolation worthy of a great mind, which ought to soothe your grief for the loss of a husband." Paulina replied, that she was resolved to die with him, and she asked the officer who was present to assist her in the execution of her design. Seneca considered voluntary death as an heroic action. He was afraid also to leave a person whom he held so dear, exposed to a thousand severities after

after he was gone. He consented therefore to Paulina's desire. "I have shewn you," said he, "what might have sweetened the bitterness of life. You prefer the glory of dying. I do not envy you the honour of so noble an example. We shall die perhaps with the same constancy; but the glory on your side is much more noble and complete." After this they both caused the veins of their arms to be opened at the same time; but Nero, who loved Paulina, gave orders to save her life. Seneca was so much extenuated by continued abstinence, that the blood did not flow from his veins: he had recourse therefore to a warm bath, by the vapour of which, mixed with that of

some liquors, he was stifled. He conversed long and very sensibly whilst he was waiting for death, and what he then said was collected by his secretaries, and published afterwards by his friends. This dismal scene took place in the sixty-fifth year of the Christian æra, and in the twelfth year of the reign of Nero.

The annexed figure of Seneca is taken from an antique statue, which, according to Rossi, was in the Spada palace at Rome. The philosopher is here represented in a sitting posture, which among the Romans was a mark of dignity, and his whole attitude seems to display deep study, contemplation, and intenseness of thought.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

I send you, exactly as I find it in an old volume of manuscripts, *A Description (as it is called) of the King of Sweden, (Charles XII.) in the year 1707.*

MY LORD,

I WILL tell you as a particular friend, that even without leave, (which should not have been) I did venture the other day to ramble into Saxony, to satisfy my curiosity in seeing those different kings there; and to penetrate as far as I could, how matters stood here, and how fate is like to be determined by that gothic hero, who with a handful of men, makes himself dreaded and courted by all the powers of Europe. As for his person, he did not answer the description I had of him. He is a tall handsome gentleman, but immoderately dirty and slovenly; his behaviour and carriage more rustic than you can imagine in so young a man. And that the outside of his quarters should not belie the inside, he has chose the dirtiest of all Saxony, and one of the saddest houses. The cleanliest place is the court before the house, where every body is to alight off their

horses, and is up to the knees in dirt, where his horses stand, with hardly any halters, and sacking instead of cloths, without either rack or manger. The horses have rough coats, thick bellies, thin buttocks, and switch tails: the grooms that look after them seem not to be better clothed nor kept than their horses, one of which always stands ready for the mighty monarch, who runs out commonly alone, and bestrides his steed, and away he gallops, before any body is ready to follow him. Sometimes he will go ten or twelve of their country miles in a day, (which is forty-eight or fifty English miles) now in the winter time, bespattered all over with dirt like a postillion.

I should make my letter too long if I told you his dress, his eating, drinking, and sleeping: but not to let it entirely alone, I'll tell you his coat is plain blue, with ordinary

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brass buttons; the skirts put up behind and before, which shews his nasty old leather waistcoat and breeches, and which they tell us is sometimes so greasy they may be fried; but when I saw him they were almost new, for he had been gallanting a little before, and had been to see king Augustus's queen, upon her return to Leipstick; and to be very fine, had put on these new leather breeches.—Spoke not above three words to her, but talked to a foolish dwarf she has for about a quarter of an hour, then left her. He wears a black crape cravat; but the cape of his coat is buttoned on so close about it, you cannot see whether he has any or no. His shirt and wristbands are commonly very dirty, for he wears no gloves or ruffles on horseback: his hands are commonly of the same colour with his wristbands, so that you can hardly distinguish them. His hair is of a light brown, very greasy and very short; never combed but with his fingers.

He sits upon any stool or chair he can find: he begins his dinner with a great piece of bread and butter, which he spreads with his thumb: having stuck his napkin under his chin, he drinks with his mouthful, out of a great silver old-fashioned beaker, small beer, which is his only liquor at his meals; he drinks about two English bottles, for he empties his beaker twice: between every bit of meat he eats a piece of bread and butter. He is never more than a quarter of an hour at dinner, eats like a horse, speaks not a word all the while; as soon as he rises, his drabands, or life-guards, sit down at the same table, to the same victuals.

His bed chamber is a little dirty room, with bare walls; no sheets or canopy to his bed; but the same quilt that lies under him turns up over him, and to cover him: at his bed's feet stands his close-stool, a sad dirty wooden thing.

His writing table is only a slight deal, with only a stick to support it; and instead of a standish, a wooden

thing, with a sand box of the same. He has a fine gilt bible by his bedside, which is the only thing which looks fine in his equipage.

He is a very handsome man, well shaped, and a very good face; no stern countenance; but he is very whimsical and positive, which makes all the allies afraid of him, for he risks himself and his army as easily as another would fight a duel.

He has not shewed much generosity to king Augustus, who sent a *carte blanche* to make peace, and to recommend himself to his friendship; but he does still every day very hard things to that poor prince, who he treats always like one he has entirely in his power.

King Augustus is as well bred a man as you shall see; very obliging in his person and behaviour, and liked by every one. But now he pays for all his false unfaithful politics, and finds too late that one prince should not intirely submit to another.

Although my letter is too long already, I will give you a short account of the Polish court of king Stanislaus, who I found at Leipstick; where I not only saw that king, but he very civilly came and spoke to me and my friend, as being strangers. His court has a much better air than that of his master. His mother and wife were there, a couple of well bred women, well dressed, and spoke good French. He is tall, young, and handsome; wears whiskers, in the Polish dress, but inclinable to be fat, and a little upon the dirty, as all the Poles are. He was lodged in a very pretty little castle, belonging to king Augustus, but against that king's will, who will never see him, and cannot bear to hear him spoke of; and yet the Swedes would oblige him to see him, which they say he ought to do by the treaty.

You used to tell me, my dear lord, you loved to hear of my rambles, and I believe this will please you better than my former, being a very true description of the mighty and dirty monarch.

SINGULAR CHARACTERS AND ANECDOTES OF THE COURT
OF LOUIS XIV. KING OF FRANCE.

BY M. ANQUETIL.

Of the Abbé COSNAC.

THE Abbé Cosnac who was in the train of Louis XIV. was the younger son of a very good family in Limoulin. 'I shall make my fortune,' said he, as he left his father's house, to come to Paris; and though of an ungraceful figure, without the advantages of a liberal education, and indeed, destitute of every recommendation but his name, he actually made his fortune. 'He determined on a clerical life, and, during the civil wars, insinuated himself into the service of the Prince of Conti; who, on account of the awkwardness of his shape, had been destined to the same profession. At the age of twenty-two, the Abbé became an active negociator, contributed to the peace of Bourdeaux, and afterwards to the marriage of the Prince with one of Mazarine's nieces. He next became first gentleman to the Prince, and acquired great credit with the Minister. But, his object was a bishoprick; with a view to which he preached at Court, and practised every other art likely to promote his purpose. Unfortunately, he had enemies in the service of the Prince of Conti, who sought to disappoint his wishes, and succeeded so far, as to prepossess the Prince against him. While his affairs were in this state, the Bishoprick of Valence fell vacant; Cosnac hastened to the Prince, and begged his interest for it. The Prince seemed but little disposed to listen to him.' 'What! (cries the Abbé) do you answer me thus coldly, my Lord,—me, the confidant of your secrets? Beware! Let it not be known, that you have answered in this ambiguous manner, on an occasion in which the interest of your principal domestic is so deeply concerned.'

'Without giving the Prince time to reply, he ran next to the apartment of the Princess, who was not yet awake. 'Awake her, [cried he,] her honour requires it.' At the noise, her women opened the door of the chamber. 'Get up, Madam, [says the Abbé] save the honour of the Prince of Conti, your own, and that of the family. The Bishoprick of Valence is vacant. I am come to beg his Highness to ask it for me; but rise, Madam, the moments are precious. Your uncle will not refuse you, if he see that you can get up so early, and appear before him, in your morning dress, in order to perform a generous piece of service to one of your creatures.' She wished to speak to her husband. 'I shall take care of that, [returned he] rise I pray you, and wait on the Cardinal.' She complied.'

'Mazarine was not of a temper to give away any thing easily. He haggled with his niece, and promised her a Bishoprick of less value, which was also vacant. When she returned to her apartments; 'Well!' said the Abbé, 'I have nearly done your business, [replied the princess,] but not Valence;' and then she related particulars. 'What, [returned the Abbé] "you come home satisfied, and have obtained nothing? The matter is no longer a concern of mine, but your own. I declare that I will have none but Valence; and, as soon as your Highness is dressed, you will go back, and complete what you have begun.' In fact, a few days after, the Abbé Cosnac having preached before the Queen, and the whole Court, the Cardinal met him, as he went down from the pulpit, and said, to name you Bishop of Valence, after your delivering so

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"excellent a discourse, is like bestowing a Marshal's staff in a breach;—go, thank the King."

"Immediately after his nomination, he waited on the Archbishop of Paris, and asked him to confer on him Priest's orders. Willingly, "said the Prelate." Be so good as make me a Deacon, too;" "be it so." "And a sub-deacon." "Pray, have you undergone the tonsure, yet?" [said the Archbishop] you have been so scantily served with sacraments, that, I fear, we must begin with baptism."

There are two other anecdotes told of this singular divine, that may serve to illustrate his character. The Duke de Candale, who had quarrelled with the Bishop, happening to see him, one day, in his house at Valence, in a very large company, said, on pretence of thanking him for the kind reception he met with, but, in reality, with a view to mortify him; "At least, Sir, to shew, that our reconciliation is sincere, permit me, in presence of all these Gentlemen, to beg a thousand pardons for the ill offices I have done you with the Prince of Conti. I am sorry for them; and entreat your forgiveness." "Make yourself easy [returned the Prelate in a high tone], "I have repaid them amply, with the Cardinal."

"The other anecdote is relative to his journey to St. Jean de Luz, with the Minister. In a party, several of whom made public professions of being attached to the Cardinal, the conversation turned upon his Eminence, but not to his praise. One complained of his negligence in rewarding his servants. In the heat of the conversation, Cosnac gravely taking up his hat, gloves, and cloak, says, "Gentlemen, I wish you good night. I am going to tell the Minister what we have said: "I had rather, both for your sakes and my own, that he should hear

"this from me, than from any of you; who, I well know, would not fail to do him the service." And, he actually went to Mazarine, and repeated the conversation.

Of the DUKE de MAZARINE.

In the year 1669, the Duke de Mazarine retired from court. St. Simon has thought fit to commemorate this event; and I shall follow his example. Such singular characters are seldom to be met with. "I have seen him" says our author; "he was a big fat man, whose appearance indicated him to be a man of wit; and I have indeed been told by those who lived with him, that he had a great deal of wit, and that of the most agreeable kind. He was a very entertaining companion, exceedingly well informed, a man of taste, magnificent, brave, affable, and polite; he enjoyed the familiar intimacy of the King, who always retained an affection for him, and continued to give him proofs of it, though he deserved to be more than forgotten.

"As son to Marshal de la Meillerie, he succeeded to a very considerable fortune of his own. And Cardinal Mazarine chose him for a husband to Hortensia, the handsomest of his nieces, and for heir of his name and fortune. His father, a man of merit, though an intimate friend of the Cardinal, long refused to agree to this marriage. He was afraid, he said, that such enormous wealth might crush his family. The son was possessed of eight and twenty millions of livres, to which were added the Governments of Brittany, Nantz, Brest, Fort-Lewis, St. Malo, Alsace, Breffack, Besfort, with the great Bailiwick of Haguenau, which alone afforded yearly thirty thousand livres, besides the Government of Vincennes, and the office of Grand Master of Artillery. He was made a Lieutenant-general

general as early as the year 1654, and might have become, in due time, a Marshal of France. But piety, though so valuable a qualification, and so necessary to communicate value to all others, by warping his mind, spoiled all the talents which he had received from nature, and rendered useless all the advantages conferred on him by fortune.

M. de Mazarine rendered his wife a subject of scandal to the world. He became ridiculous and insufferably troublesome to the King, by teasing him with his pretended visions concerning his Majesty's mistresses. Having retired to one of his estates, he there became a prey to pretended saints and devotees, who availed themselves of his weakness, and shared his millions. He mutilated the finest statues, and daubed over the best pictures in his palaces, because of their tendency to excite evil thoughts in the beholder. He assigned his domestics their places by lot; in consequence of which, his cook became steward, and another was advanced from a still humbler place to be his secretary; and this because lots, in his opinion, indicated the will of God.

He was pleased when people brought actions at law against him; because in losing a cause, he lost what did not, in justice, belong to him, and when he gained a cause, his conscience was then satisfied with his right to the disputed property. He was extremely troublesome to the officers on his estates, by making them enter into minute details of particulars, and imposing absurd commands. Of these, one instance will be enough. He forbid the married and the young women to milk cows on his domains. He wished to make his daughters pull out their fore-teeth, because nature had given them very fine ones, and he was

afraid that they might value themselves too much upon them.

In the latter years of his life, he was constantly travelling about among his seats; and though he had not taken proper care of his wife when alive, he carried her body, which he had caused to be brought over from England, every where about with him after her death. At the last, he had nothing remaining but the Government of Alsace, and two or three other trifling places; having dissipated that immense fortune which had excited his father's fears. I saw him, continue St. Simon, when he was made a Knight of the Order, in the year 1688; after which he appeared but about three or four times, and at each for only a very short space, in Paris, and at Court,—where he was always received by the King with an air of friendship and marks of particular respect. M. de Mazarine was about eighty years of age when he died. His death was felt as a loss by nobody; to such a degree had his unhappy turn of mind obscured his excellent qualities.

Of M. la VAUGUION.

La Vauguion was in the habit of visiting Madame Pelot, the rich widow of a first president of the parliament of Rouen, who gave every evening a supper entertainment, after which her company used to amuse themselves with play. One evening, on his not daring to venture a certain throw, she called him, in raillery, a coward. La Vauguion made no reply, staid till he saw all the company leave her, and, when he found himself alone with her, bolted the door, clapped on his hat, pushed her into a corner, and pressed her head between his hands, told her, that he knew not what hindered him from beating her head into a jelly, for calling him a cow-

‘a coward. The lady was much affrighted, and with many excuses and excuses sought to pacify him. He, at last, left her, more dead than alive. He had the assurance to come back, as usual, after this adventure; and she was so generous as never to mention it till his death; but took always great care never to be left alone with him.’

One of la Vauguion’s whims was to get himself put into the Bastille; possibly because he might there be less anxious about the means of subsistence than at home. He made several attempts to accomplish this favourite object; sometimes performing acts of imprudence, for which he deserved to be sent there, and sometimes voluntarily offering himself to confinement. Being still refused by the Governor, he, at last, contrived to commit a piece of extravagance, by which he was certain of attaining his purpose. He obliged M. de Courtenai to draw his sword upon him, in the palace of Fontainebleau. The combatants were parted. La Vauguion ran instantly to the King, to offer him his head, as he said; because, having been insulted by M. de Courtenai, he had drawn his sword against him in the Royal Palace; violating his duty, in defence of his honour. The King told him, that he would enquire into the affair; and he was, in two hours, sent where he wished to be, as well as Courtenai, who, most probably, had not the same predilection for the Bastille. But, they were not long confined.

Of the DUKE of ORLEANS.

The regency of the Duke of Orleans has exposed him to so great a diversity of opinions, that the reader cannot be displeased at seeing his portrait, drawn from the life, without disguise or partiality, by the Duke de St. Simon, who was brought up with him, and was always his intimate companion. ‘This prince was not above the middle stature;

‘of a full habit, though not fat: his air and carriage were easy and noble: his countenance open and agreeable; and his complexion florid. He affected to imitate Henry IV. in every thing; in his manner, in his repartees, and even in his faults. Though he had made but indifferent progress in his academical studies, he had naturally a gracefulness in his manner, which was distinguishable in his most trifling actions. His mother conveyed a very just idea of his character.

‘The fairies [said she] were called to witness his birth. All attended, except one who had long disappeared, and who had been unhappily overlooked. She, however, took it into her head to be present among the rest; but before her arrival, they had endowed the child. Affronted at this neglect, the malicious imp, unable to revoke the gift of her sisters, resting on her slender rod, pronounced these words, with a horrid grin: “let him have all these talents; but I pronounce them useless.” This apologue is the true history of the Duke of Orleans, especially during the life of Lewis XIV. His talents either remained unemployed or were employed to no good purpose.

‘One accomplishment he possessed in an eminent degree; that of conversing sensibly and easily on every subject. To hear him talk of politics, government, science, family-history and characters, one would have imagined him a diligent reader; which was by no means the case. His memory was, however, so retentive, that if he but glanced slightly over a book, he could at any time afterwards recollect all the circumstances, facts, and even dates, with surprising accuracy. Such was the strength of his judgment, that he would have seldom erred, had he always followed his first idea on every subject.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

BRITISH.

TRAVELS THROUGH CYPRUS, SYRIA, AND PALESTINE; *with a General History of the Levant.* By the Abbé Mariti. Vol. II.

(Continued from page 216.)

THIS volume begins with an account of the different people who inhabit Syria and Palestine, viz, the Arabs, Druses, and Curdes; these latter, our author demonstrates, are the same as the Assassins; of the Mevuals, Nazirs, or Nazarenes, Turks, Jews, Latins, Maronites, Greeks, Armenians, Georgians, Ethiopians and Copts. Of the Arab women he says,

The features of the Arab women are remarkably beautiful when they are young; but they soon become disfigured by certain black spots like patches, which they make in their faces with a sharp-pointed iron. They mark with the same colour their lips and eye-lashes, by mixing with the paint employed for that purpose a certain substance which they call *coliafiri*. According to the general custom of the Levant, they dye their nails and the palms of their hands yellow, as I have already observed in the first volume of this work.

Young girls make an opening near one of the nostrils, into which they put a clove: this appears to them to be a peculiar beauty, which they consider as a sign of virginity; though they continue to wear it even after they have had children. There are some of them who, instead of a clove, thrust through their nostrils a silver ring, about an inch and a half in diameter; from the bottom of which is suspended a piece of coral, or some small coin.

The women suckle their own children, and never commit them to the care of wet-nurses. This custom of sending out children to be nursed, which took its rise in the bosom of polished Europe, is too inconsistent with the views of nature, ever to present itself to the ideas of these simple and rustic people. All the Arab women nurse their own children; all are fond of discharging this first duty of a mother; and none of them will permit another to share with her in the laborious cares of education, for which she thinks herself sufficiently repaid by the smiles and caresses of innocence. Indefatigable by the

force of maternal tenderness, they may be seen in the longest journeys carrying their children on their shoulders; and, when they have occasion to give them suck, bringing them forward a little, and raising the breast to their mouths.

One difference is remarked between the Arab men and women; which is, that the latter, much less serious when young, become peevish and melancholy with age; whilst the men acquire with years an opener and freer air. This difference indeed may be remarked among the people of every nation whatever; a desire of pleasing, and of being loved, is the first sentiment that arises in the mind of a woman; and it grows and increases as she approaches towards maturity; but as love accompanies beauty only, and as beauty disappears with youth, it is not astonishing that a woman should become morose as she advances in life. Having lost the power of charming, she is no longer followed; and this neglect she is by no means able to support. With men the case is quite different: being formed for accomplishing great things, they seem to abandon their nature when they suffer themselves to be overcome by love. When the fire of youth engages them in this passion, they fall into a state of languor, by which all their faculties are absorbed: but this impetuosity is cooled by years; they soon return to themselves; and reason gaining a lasting power over them, permits them to entertain only mild and regular affections, which are displayed in their exterior conduct.

The Arab women wear only a plain robe, after the Turkish manner, and scarcely ever cover their heads. Their cloaks resemble those of the men: but there are only a few of them who use drawers, according to the custom of polished people in the east. They ornament their hair with strings of small glass beads of different colours; on their legs and arms they wear bracelets of the same, and have rings made of metal on their fingers.

The principal occupation of the Arab women is, to take care of the tents in which they lodge, to provide water, to prepare food, to milk their flocks, and to make butter and cheese. They likewise manufacture the cloth necessary for covering their tents.

He then proceeds to give a description of the city of St. John of Acre, the monasteries, mosques, &c. In this chapter we have a pretty long

P P account

account of the celebrated Schiek Daher.

Our author next proceeds to describe the journey from Acre to Mount Carmel, and we have a particular account of what is to be found thereon.

On ascending that part of Mount Carmel which projects into the sea like a promontory, you find on the left a garden, surrounded by very weak walls, that conducts to two remarkable grottoes. The first of these grottoes, which is also the largest, and which has been cut into almost a square form by means of the chisfel, is about six feet in length, twenty-seven in breadth, and twelve in height: from this you pass into the second, which appeared to me to be two thirds narrower, and besides very irregular.

These grottoes are held in great veneration by the Mahometans, who consider them as the ancient habitation of the prophet Elias. They have converted them into a mosque, under the title of El-Kader; that is to say, *the green*, in which service is performed by a dervise, or Turkish monk, who with his family lives in a neighbouring cottage.

This place served formerly as an asylum to some Carmelite monks, who afterwards quitted it, in order to avoid the continual insults of the Arabs. It was indeed too near the high road to afford a peaceable life to these Cenobites.

When you come out from this grotto, into which you are admitted on paying a few pieces of money, you ascend by a very steep and narrow path, which in some places is cut out in the rock after the manner of steps. Before you reach the summit, you meet with the convent of these solitary monks of whom I have just spoken.

The structure of this peaceful retreat excites equal respect and admiration. It is almost indebted for its whole extent to the hand of nature only, which seems to have constructed it in favour of rural and sequestered virtue. The small apartments and cells destined for the use of travellers are so many convenient grottoes, suited to the necessities of life. A grotto serves also as a chapel to this sacred place. When the traveller stretches his eye across the ocean, where his view is lost amidst the immensity of the watery space which is commanded by the mountain, he thinks himself still more retired from the world. The French merchants of the city of Acre come hither sometimes for the benefit of the air, which is as pure as the innocence of those who have fixed their abode in this charming spot. They have erected a small habitation for their convenience, together with a few additional cells, which have

enabled the solitary tenants to increase their number.

The grotto which forms the chapel has two entrances, fashioned by the chisfel into the form of doors. One of them looks towards the small square before the monastery, and the other towards the interior part of it. This chapel, which is very irregular, may be about twenty feet in length, and six in breadth. It contains two altars, the principal of which is consecrated to the Virgin, and the second to St. Elias.

Two priests, and two Carmelite laics, are almost always here at prayers. The little leisure which they allow themselves is employed in cultivating a small garden contiguous to the monastery.

These monks live on the charity of the Mahometans, who have often been witnesses to their exemplary life. When I saw them bringing their alms, I blessed virtue, the irresistible power of which subdues mankind, and forces even our enemies to relieve our wants.

The route from Acre to Geddis and to the city of Nazareth; from thence to Cana and Tiberias to Tyre, with descriptions of these and several other places, and the route from Rama to Jerusalem follow.

Here, and in the environs, our author has a fine field for his pen. His entrance into Jerusalem will shew the tyrannical disposition of the government of that famous city.

Having arrived at the gate of Bethlehem, and having no one to guide me, I resolved to follow the caravan. I entered the city on horseback, which in the last century Europeans were not suffered to do; and, being stopped by a Turkish centinel, paid the usual toll, which is two *medins* for each person.

Scarcely had I advanced two steps in the first street, when a Christian of the Latin communion politely accosted me, and asked if I was not a Frankman, which is an appellation bestowed here on all the Europeans. On my returning an answer, he offered to conduct me to the convent of St. Saviour, which is in the possession of the fathers of the Holy Land. This obliging attention from a stranger gave me a very favourable idea of the manners of the people of Jerusalem.

One of the interpreters in the service of the convent appeared very much surprised to see me arrive without notice being sent to these good monks by the governor. Having told him in what manner I had entered, he informed me that I must return without the city; because Europeans who

came

from Jaffa are forbid to pass through any other gate than that of Damascus. The infraction of this law would have exposed the monastery, and perhaps myself, to some disagreeable exaction. This unlucky accident was very distressing to a fatigued traveller; and I silently murmured against the fanaticism of the Mahometans, which delights to torment, by ridiculous customs, those of a different religion from their own. There was, however, no remedy; and I said, why blame the superstitious Mussulmans? They only behave to catholics in the same manner as the catholics behave to the Jews. What plausible reason can the Italians have for compelling these children of the Hebrews to wear yellow caps on their heads, which exposes them to the derision of the populace? We, nevertheless, boast of being enlightened by philosophy.

I was, however, saved the trouble of making a long circuit round the walls. A janissary belonging to the guard of the convent conducted me to the gate of Damascus, by crossing the city from south to north.

The interpreter in the mean time went to ask the governor's permission for me to enter; and having joined me, together with a ciocadar, or officer of the bathaw, I was admitted upon paying a few *medins*. When we returned to St. Saviour, I presented myself to the superior, who received me with much politeness. He asked me my name, that of my country, and the object of my voyage; in order that he might insert them in the Pilgrims' Register, which is carefully preserved among the archives of the convent. After this, he shewed me the cell destined for me, which was extremely commodious; and the interpreter introduced me to the other officers of the house.

Some religious ceremonies are here practised towards travellers; and it would be neither decent nor polite to reject them. They are conducted to vespers, and invited to follow the procession with tapers in their hands. The priests who officiate wash their feet amidst prayers, and a *Te Deum* chanted by the choir; after which they are introduced into the hospital, and requested to preserve the tapers in memory of this august pilgrimage.

All Europeans, of whatever religion, are received in the convent, and supplied with every necessary and convenience. At their departure they generally leave a small sum by way of alms; but this is merely gratuitous, and nothing is ever asked from them.

The orientals who follow the rites of the Latin church may lodge also with the fathers of the Holy Land; but only for three days: if their affairs require them to reside longer at Jerusalem, they must retire

to a small house near the convent, to which these monks continue to send them provisions.

The superior showed every possible attention both to me and my friends. We had a separate table, and were sometimes served by the monks themselves, who readily sacrificed their moments of leisure to our convenience.

As these reverend fathers seemed very desirous to know what had happened to me in my journey from Rama to Jerusalem, I freely confessed to them, that their brethren in that city had given me very bad advice; and I related the dangers I had encountered in consequence of following it. "A longer perseverance," added I, "would have obtained the crown of martyrdom to any one courageous enough to seek for it." The answer which they returned upon this occasion fully justified the monks of Rama. "An European," said they, "who wishes to go to Jerusalem, is more exposed in the company of a caravan, than if he travelled with two or three Arabs of known probity. Several of them are ready at all times to escort pilgrims, on receiving a small reward, which is paid them by the convent of Jerusalem. They conduct you by unfrequented roads; and besides, they are almost always respected by the banditti whom they meet. For the greater safety, however, it is prudent in a traveller not to discover his rank, his riches, or his intentions. A plain and even threadbare dress is of advantage to him, as it will prevent all suspicion of his opulence. If these Arabs then happen to stop him, it is only to examine whether he be really as poor as he appears. A refusal confirms his disguise; and he can sustain no injury, because they never insult a traveller through wantonness." In short, they concluded that I had made a very bad use of the advice given to me.

The Armenians on this subject follow certain principles which are peculiar to themselves. Instead of dreading to meet these Arabs, they wish for it, and even throw themselves in their way. A few blows of a stick well applied, in their idea, render a pilgrimage much more meritorious. To this singularity they add another, which is, that on their return they never speak of the insults which they have experienced. The closest silence is enjoined them on this head, under the pain of excommunication.

I must here observe, that this article of their belief is the consequence of the policy of their patriarch, who resides at Jerusalem, and who has taken care to inspire his people with these superstitious ideas; which are serviceable to him. As it is customary for each pilgrim to give him a

present according to pleasure, the greater the number is, the more he receives.

Thus man every where abuses the most sacred things, and makes them subservient to his pride and his luxury.

The Abbé thus describes the holy sepulchre.

The sepulchre of Christ; which is open only on solemn days, is in the Church of the Resurrection. All pilgrims and devotees come hither to celebrate the holy mysteries, under the protection of the governor, who sends a party of soldiers to escort them; and they enter the church in procession, and with the sound of plaintive music. On this occasion, I think it would be difficult for any person, of whatever religion, not to be inspired with sentiments of reverence and awe, on the sight of this august temple.

Gloomy, and of an immense size, it is lighted principally by the lamps which are suspended from its roof. The pilasters are become black by length of years, and no ornaments are to be seen on its walls. The altars and statues of the saints are of coarse stone, and the chandeliers of wood. Every thing used here for religious service is in the simplest and plainest taste. In a word, this church is poor, but it is what a church ought to be. The Deity requires only from man purity of heart, and an exemplary life. Why did Jesus Christ himself live in the bosom of indigence? Was it not to teach the world that religion is inseparable from poverty? I will venture to affirm, that it is an insult to Heaven to display too much luxury and magnificence in holy places. It is assimilating things sacred to things profane. It is authorizing in the mind of the opulent man that passion for riches, which makes him turn aside his eyes from misfortune. It is, above all, afflicting the heart of the poor, who cannot resolve to bless misery, before an altar shining with gold, silver, and jewels.

There are several remarks of our author, which are worthy the reader's attention, but our limits will not afford room for inserting them. Among other superstitions of the Greeks of that country, one deserves to be noticed.

There is one superstitious practice, however, used by the schismatic Greeks, which is so singular, that it cannot fail of giving a momentary entertainment.

This sect, deluded by their priests, sincerely believe that God annually performs a miracle in order to send them sacred fire. The manner in which they prepare to re-

ceive it is as follows: A great crowd assemble in the church of the Resurrection, together with people who sell provisions of every kind. A thousand different voices are then heard all at once; and the whole company beginning to run round the chapel of the Sepulchre, they press against each other in such a manner, that many of them are thrown down and trod under foot. There are some who butt at each other like rams, and struggle with the greatest violence. A dozen collected together may be seen challenging each other to combat with their fists. Some traverse the church, riding on each other's shoulders; others are dragged along the pavement by the feet; several resting their bodies on their heads and hands, agitate their legs in the air, or turn round with the velocity of a wheel; while others, uniting together, form pyramids, which tumble down, and often occasion contusions and dangerous wounds to the actors of this strange farce. In the midst of this mad disorder, the arches of the church continually resound with the exclamation, *huia, huia*; which signifies, in the Arabic language, Here he is! here he is! it is he himself!

These extravagancies are continued for four hours, and are only a prelude to those which are to take place the next day.

It is customary for the governor of Jerusalem to be present at this singular scene. A sofa is prepared for him in the gallery set apart for spectators, where he admits, together with his courtiers, all European travellers.

On this occasion, the other oriental Christians, who have separated from the Romish church, may be seen amidst the Greek schismatics. In their hands they hold wax tapers, painted of different colours, in order to kindle them at the sacred fire which is about to descend.

A strict search is in the mean time made throughout every part of the church; and all the lamps are extinguished, to prevent the doubts and suspicions of unbelieving miscreants.

The Copts, the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Syrians, walk in procession together, and with no less noise and tumult than is observed during the preceding ceremonies. When this is finished, the bishop of the Greeks, and the patriarch of the Armenians, enter the chapel of the Sepulchre, the doors of which they carefully shut, and place a guard of Turks at them, to keep the people at a distance.

The loud cries, combats, and all the other extravagancies, are then repeated to such a degree, that the janissaries are obliged to check the confusion with their sticks.

At length the two lateral doors of the chapel are opened together; and the sacred fire

fire is seen shining in the hands of the two ministers, who present it to the people.

Their hearts are then transported with joy; they hasten to light their tapers; shew them to the spectators in the gallery, exclaiming, a miracle! a miracle! and each congratulates the other, on being once more thought worthy of divine favour. They embrace one another with great affection, shed tears of joy, and by every possible demonstration endeavour to express their gratitude towards Heaven. Some carry their folly so far as to burn their flesh by extinguishing a taper against their breast, to sanctify more efficaciously, as they say, their hearts, their minds, and their souls. A second procession is afterwards made, by way of returning thanks; and each retires to his home.

We find therefore that here, as well as elsewhere, the priests sport with the credulity of the people; but I have no occasion to explain their motive. It may be readily guessed that, if they were not well paid, they would not give themselves the trouble to perform a miracle.

TRAVELS OF ANACHARSIS THE YOUNGER IN GREECE, DURING THE MIDDLE OF THE FOURTH CENTURY BEFORE THE CHRISTIAN ÆRA. By the Abbé Barthélemi, Keeper of the Medals in the Cabinet of the King of France, and Member of the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. Translated from the French. In Seven Volumes 8vo. and an Eighth in 4to. Containing Maps, Plans, Views, and Coins, illustrative of the Geography and Antiquities of ancient Greece. Robinsons. 1791.

[Continued from page 224.]

WHEN that day arrived, Miltiades drew up his troops at the foot of a mountain, on a spot of ground scattered over with trees, to impede the Persian cavalry. The Platæans were placed on the left wing; Callimachus commanded the right: Aristides and Themistocles were in the centre of the battle, and Miltiades every where. An interval of eight stadia separated the Grecian army from that of the Persians.

At the first signal, the Greeks advanced over this space, running. The Persians, astonished at a mode of attack so novel to both nations, for a moment remained mo-

tionless; but to the impetuous fury of the enemy they soon opposed a more sedate and not less formidable fury. After an obstinate conflict of some hours, victory began to declare herself in the two wings of the Grecian army. The right dispersed the enemy in the plain; while the left drove them back on a morass that had the appearance of a meadow, in which they stuck fast, and were lost. Both these bodies of troops now flew to the succour of Aristides and Themistocles, ready to give way before the flower of the Persian troops, placed by Datis in the centre of his battle. From this moment, the rout became general. The Persians, repulsed on all sides, found their only asylum in the fleet, which had approached the shore. The conquerors pursued them with fire and sword, and took, burnt, or sunk, the greater part of their vessels: the rest escaped by dint of rowing.

The succeeding events of this age are rapidly hurried over, yet told in so lively and interesting a manner, that it is impossible to give any adequate idea of the spirit of the work without transcribing, which we fear we have already done too freely. Our readers will, however, judge, by what we have offered, of the merits of the whole, which no where is inferior, but often rises much higher with the importance of the subject. If we rather selected the battle of Marathon than that of Thermopylæ, it was because it was shorter, and less connected with other events.

The age of Pericles closes the glory of Athens. Within it is comprehended Alcibiades, and all the interesting events that attended that extraordinary character, as well as the general temper of the Athenians, at a period when riches flowed in upon them by every channel. The unfortunate expedition to Syracuse, so often compared to the American war of our own times, and our own country, is told with more brevity than we could have wished, considering the important lesson it affords to all nations in the hour of their insolence. The volume closes with an account of the state of learning in those times, which are supposed to be immediately antecedent to the period when

when Anacharsis commences his travels.

In the second volume our author begins his travels. His introduction is in the simple style of the ancients.

Anacharsis, a native of Scythia, the son of Toxaris, is the author of this work, which he addresses to his friends. He begins by stating to them the motives that induced him to travel.

You know that I am descended from the sage Anacharsis, so celebrated among the Greeks, and so unworthily treated by the Scythians. The history of his life and death inspired me, from my earliest childhood, with esteem for the nation which had honoured, and with distaste for that which knew not how to appreciate, his virtues.

This disgust was still more increased by the arrival of a Greek slave, whom I purchased. He was of one of the principal families of Thebes in Boeotia. About thirty-six years before, he had followed the younger Cyrus in the expedition undertaken by that prince against his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia. Being taken prisoner in one of those engagements to which the Greeks were compelled in their retreat, he frequently changed masters, and wore the chains of servitude in different nations, till chance brought him to the country in which I lived.

The more I became acquainted with him, the more sensible was I of the ascendancy of an enlightened over an un-instructed people. Timagenes, for that was the Theban's name, at once delighted and humbled me by the charms of his conversation, and the superiority of his knowledge: the history of the Greeks, their manners, governments, sciences, arts, festivals, and spectacles, were the inexhaustible topics of our conversation. I interrogated him, and I listened to his replies with transport. I was then just entering my eighteenth year, and my imagination added the liveliest colours to the richness of his descriptions. I had hitherto seen nothing but tents, flocks, and deserts. From this time, incapable of enduring the wandering life I till then led, and the profound ignorance to which I was condemned, I resolved to abandon a climate where Nature scarcely provided for the necessities of man, and a nation whose only virtue seemed to me to consist in its ignorance of vice.

It is impossible not to feel interested in every part of this valuable narrative; it is equally impossible not to

reap instruction, or improve the heart. Every enquiry is directed with judgment and sagacity, every remark evinces a superior mind, and every research tends to objects that may increase the happiness of mankind. With Timagenes, to whom he gave liberty, and whom he made the companion of his travels, he sailed down the Tauric Cherfontes, now called the Crimea, of which a most interesting account is introduced, as well as of the Pontus Euxinus. An opportunity, by conversing with some of the passengers on board the vessel, occurs of describing the general state of Greece previous to the date of Anacharsis's travels. The Thracian Bosphorus and Byzantium, now Constantinople, are described with the accuracy of a geographer, a philosopher, and a merchant. Lesbos introduces an account of Sappho and Alcæus, collected with wonderful industry, and described with equal exactness and critical acumen. The account of Eubœa is made interesting, though, perhaps, in a few instances, it is more precise than such of our readers as have not a true relish for every minutia of classic territory can relish. From hence our hero arrives at Thebes, the country of Timagenes, and has the happiness of being introduced to Epaminondas. Athens follows, and every thing that can engage the attention of a traveller, a scholar, a philosopher, a politician; in short, every thing that can be heard or seen at Athens, is made interesting; and persons of the least classical curiosity are detained, in spite of themselves, with all the eagerness of enquiry.

The academy is our author's first object, where he enjoys the conversation and lectures of Plato, and is entertained with the peculiarities of Diogenes. The following is part of the description of Plato.

He now felt an ardent desire to make himself useful to mankind. The Peloponnesian war had destroyed every principle of virtue, and corrupted the public manners. The glory of restoring them

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excited his ambition. Agitated night and day by this sublime idea, he waited with impatience for the moment, when, invested with the functions of magistracy, he should have it in his power to display his zeal and talents; but the rude shocks the republic had met with in the latter years of the war, those frequent revolutions which in so short a time exhibited tyranny under forms daily more terrific, the death of Socrates, his master and his friend, and the reflections that such a series of events gave rise to in his mind, soon convinced him that all governments labour under incurable disorders; that the affairs of mortals, if we may so speak, are desperate; and that they will never know happiness till philosophy shall take them under her guidance. Abandoning therefore his project, he resolved to increase his stock of knowledge, and to dedicate his acquirements to the instruction of his country. With this view, he travelled to Megara, into Italy, Cyrenaiica, and Egypt, and where-ever the human mind had made any progress in improvement.

Thus we see, even as early as Plato, every serious and good man regretted, that philosophy should not have been applied to the science of jurisprudence and legislation. It seems, indeed, to have been reserved for the present age to deride what all antiquity has revered, and reverence the institutions of barbarians and savages, which all the good and wise men of antiquity have regretted should ever have existed. A melancholy instance of the weakness and wickedness of one part of our race, who are only afraid of discussion, when truth is on the eve, not only of being discovered, but adopted.

The scholar will, perhaps, be most of all astonished at seeing, by the authorities produced, how much he has overlooked, even in his careful perusal of the classics. No instance more remarkably illustrates this than the account of the private life of the Athenians.

At the crowing of the cock, the inhabitants of the country enter the city with their provisions, singing ancient ballads. At the same hour, the shops open with no little noise, and all the Athenians are in motion. Some resume the labours of their profession; others disperse them-

selves, in considerable numbers, among the different tribunals, to exercise the functions of judges.

Among the people, as well as in the army, it is customary to make two meals a day; but persons of a certain rank content themselves with one, which some eat at noon; but the greater number a little before the setting of the sun. In the afternoon, they take a few moments sleep, or play with little pieces of bone, or at dice, and other games of commerce.

In the first of these games, they make use of four small pieces of bone, having one of these four numbers, 1, 3, 4, and 6, on each of their sides. From their different combinations result thirty-five throws, to which they have given the names of gods, princes, heroes, &c. Some are losing, and others winning throws. The most favourable of all is that they call *Venus*, which is when the four bones turn up the four different numbers.

In the game of dice, they likewise distinguish lucky and unlucky throws; but frequently without attending to this distinction, it is only necessary to cast a higher number than the adversary. The pair-royal of six is the most fortunate throw. Only three dice are employed at this game. They shake them in a dice box; and, to prevent cheating, throw them into a hollow cylinder, through which they pass, and roll upon the chequer-board. Sometimes, instead of three dice, they make use of three of the little bones above mentioned.

The preceding games are games of pure chance, but the following entirely depends on judgment. On a table, on which are traced lines or pyramidal points, they range on each side pieces, or men, of different colours. The skill of this game consists in sustaining one piece by the other, in taking those of the adversary, when he leaves them unguarded; or in blocking him up, so as to prevent him from advancing: but he is permitted to play again when he has made a wrong move.

Sometimes the latter game is played with dice, the player regulating the moves of his men, or pieces, by the number he throws. In this case, it is his business to know what throws will prove fatal or advantageous to him, and to profit by the favours of fortune, or, by judgment, correct her caprices. This, as well as the preceding game, requires a number of combinations, and, to excel at it, should be practised from early youth. Some persons acquire such a degree of skill, that their names become celebrated, and that no person will venture to play against them.

At different times of the day, and especially

pecially in the morning, before noon, and in the evening, before supper, the company repair to the banks of the Ilissus and the environs of the city, to enjoy the extreme pureness of the air, and the delightful prospects that present themselves on every side; but the usual place of meeting is the forum, the most frequented part of the whole city. As it is there that the general assembly is often held, and the palace of the senate, and the tribunal of the chief archon, are situated, almost every one is attracted thither by his own private business, or the affairs of the state. Many persons resort thither for amusement, and others in search of employment. At certain hours, the square, cleared from all the incumbrances of the market, leaves an open field for those who wish to entertain themselves with observations on the crowd, or make a display of their own persons.

Around the square, are the shops of perfumers, goldsmiths, barbers, &c. open to every person, in which the interests of the state, anecdotes of private families, and the vices or ridiculous conduct of individuals, are warmly and clamorously discussed. From amidst these groups, which, by a confused motion, are perpetually separating and re-uniting, issue a thousand ingenious or satirical pleasantries against those who mix with the company in a slovenly habit, or presume to display an offensive ostentation; for this people, passionately addicted to raillery, are expert at a kind of facetiousness the more formidable, as their malignity is dexterously concealed under it. Sometimes we meet with a select company, and instructive conversation, in the different porticos dispersed through the city. Such little parties cannot but be numerous among the Athenians. Their insatiable thirst for news, arising from the natural activity of their minds, and the idleness of their lives, forces them to seek the society of each other.

This taste, which is so predominant as to draw on them the name of loiterers or loungers, in time of war becomes a kind of madness. Then it is that in public, and in private, their conversations turn on military expeditions, and that their first question on meeting is, What news? Then are seen on every side those swarms of newsmongers, tracing out upon the ground, or on a wall, the map of the country in which the army then is, loudly proclaiming its successes, and whispering its defeats; collecting and exaggerating rumours which either throw the city into the most immoderate joy, or plunge it into the very depth of despair.

The Athenians employ their hours of peace in amusements of a more pleasing nature. As the greater part of them cul-

tivate their own estates, they mount their horses in the morning, and, after directing the labours of their slaves, return in the evening to the city.

Their time is sometimes filled up by hunting, and the exercises of the gymnasium. Besides the public baths, whither the people flock in crowds, and which serve the poor as an asylum against the inclemencies of winter, private persons have baths in their houses, and the use of them has become so indispensable, that they are introduced even on board their vessels. They frequently take a bath after their walk, and almost always previous to a repast. They come out of the bath perfumed with essences; and these odours mingle with those they carefully sprinkle over their garments, which are distinguished by different names, according to the difference of their form and colour.

In general, they are contented with throwing over a tunic that descends to the midleg, a mantle which almost entirely covers them. None but the country people, or persons without education, tuck up the different parts of their dress above the knee.

Many persons go barefooted; others, whether in the city, or on a journey, nay, sometimes even at processions, cover their heads with a large flapped hat.

In the form and disposition of the several parts of dress, the men are expected to study decency, the women to unite elegance with taste. The latter wear, 1st, a white tunic, which is fastened with buttons over the shoulders, closely bound under the bosom with a broad sash, and descends in waving folds down to the heels; 2dly, a shorter robe, confined round the waist by a broad ribbon, and, like the tunic, bordered at the bottom by stripes, or edgings, of different colours; sometimes it has sleeves covering only part of the arms; 3dly, a robe, which is sometimes worn gathered up like a scarf, and at others suffered to unfold itself over the body, the contours and proportions of which it is very well adapted to display; for this they often substitute a light mantlet. When they go out, they wear a veil over their heads.

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF M. NECKER.

Written by himself. Translated from the French. 8vo.

THE abilities of M. Necker, as a financier, and his integrity, as a man, would for ever have guarded his character against the malevolent attacks

attacks of such an abandoned character as M. Calonne, as from the feiric shafts of the Gallery of Portraits; but we are sorry to say he has discovered in this publication his weak side, and shews he is not proof against the goadings of disappointed ambition. His motives for the present publication he sets forth in the beginning of his work.

The unfortunate victim of repeated instances of injustice, of which the annals of history can furnish few examples, I felt all the weight of the most bitter recollections, without at the same time entertaining a wish to disseminate my painful sensations by means of the press. After so long a series of public actions, words I conceived were unnecessary; and, comparing sometimes my conduct with the ungrateful indifference of the National Assembly, I found in perfect silence a repose that was pleasing to the pride of my heart. Public opinion, in short, I scarcely know why, is no longer in my estimation what it was. The religious respect I entertained for it diminished, when I saw it subservient to the artifices of the designing; and when I saw it tremble before the very men whom it would formerly have summoned to its bar, to expose to shame, and to brand with its reprobation.

I am urged however by my friends to pursue a different line of conduct; but I still doubt whether the advice be prudent. They wish me to recal the attention of the public to my administration; *they wish me to revive the remembrance of it; and they forget that in this day of trouble and anxiety all individual interests are set aside for those of the nation.*

This reason, we think, should have guided him, and he might have been assured, that in the calm moments of recollection, his services to France would never have been forgotten.

However we may wish, for Mr. Necker's sake, that he had consigned his work to oblivion, or had at least suspended it until his mind had been calmer, yet we cannot help rejoicing in the assistance it will afford the future historian of the times.

Mr. Necker tells us, that his first essay in public affairs, was an attempt to invigorate the declining state of the East-India Company; that in 1775 he discussed the principles ap-

plicable to the legislation and commerce of corn; this he tells us was the first successful attack upon that philosophic sway, whose power has been experienced in so many different shapes.

The dreadful state of the finances of France in 1776, induced the king to entrust him with the direction of the treasury. It had fallen to decay under the administration of men bred to the law, and it was proposed to try the expedient of what knowledge obtained in another way would do.

Mr. N. then proceeds to detail the principles on which he acted while in administration, and the advantages he rendered the country; for proof of which he refers to the *Compte Rendu*, and his Treatise on the Finances.

In doing this, Mr. Necker contrasts his conduct with that of the National Assembly, in a manner not very decent to that body; he laid, he says, the first stone for the establishment of the Provincial Assemblies, and made public the state of the finances, certainly two very important points, and which do him great credit; but how he assisted in abolishing the right of mortmain, he has not told us.

After his first retreat, he devoted his leisure to the composition of his work on finance; in this our author justly observes, he has inculcated the inseparable union policy ought to hold with moral principle; and he also composed his work on the importance of religious opinions. Here he breaks out into a lamentation we think highly unworthy of Mr. Necker, and which shews how much he feels the injury he conceives he has received.

Alas! in my present situation why have I not this book still to write! They were tranquil days which I passed in raising myself by meditation to the idea of a Supreme Being; and I have now more need than ever of placing myself in this happy sanctuary. We there see the injustice of men from so great an eminence, that we can still love them notwithstanding our disapprobation of their conduct, we can still love them in the midst of the persecutions of which they have rendered us the victims.

times. The idea of a Supreme Being, that idea ever salutary, is applicable to every occurrence of human life; and while by its greatness it fills the compass of the world, more subtle than light, it pierces to the bottom of the soul, to fill it with the consolations of which human nature is susceptible.

I have need of these reflections, I have need at this moment of repose, before I farther present myself to the eyes and examination of men, before I pursue a discussion the necessity of which is painful to my heart.

His next administration commenced in 1788, in which he found still greater difficulties to struggle with. His actions during this administration were certainly great and praise-worthy, but why he should exclaim "All these cares, all these solitudes have been forgotten as a dream," we are at a loss to know.

In short, were we to relate all the expressions of vexatious disappointment, and in some cases the unmanly moanings in this work, we should tire our readers.

But to return to the historical part. In 1788 the calling of the States-General was determined, and the Commons succeeded in obtaining the object of their wishes, a representation equal to the two other orders combined. This claim Mr. Necker, much to his honour, supported.

In defending this measure, Mr. N. blames the nobles for rejecting the accommodation suggested by the king's ministers, which, he says, might in time have reconciled the jarring interests of different parties; in which we cannot help thinking that Mr. N. shews the greatest degree of political blindness; for we are well assured that jarring parties in a state, must infallibly bring on tyranny, or a revolution.

Mr. N. seems also to have misconceived the conduct and motives of the National Assembly.

It is a truth which cannot be disputed, that a nation is free, and becomes the guardian of its own happiness, when it acquires the power, or enjoys the right, of granting or refusing taxes, of approving or opposing

every sort of loan, and of fixing and regulating the whole expenditure; when every reform and melioration are subject to its free controul; when all pecuniary immunities are already abjured, all acts of arbitrary authority proscribed, and the periodical meeting of the National Assemblies made an essential part of the king's engagements. But all these salutary innovations were secured before the States General entered on their deliberations, or even began to assemble. The king made no secret of his intentions; he wished to render the sacrifices he had made immutable, and was desirous of guarding from every species of revolution the political advantages the nation was about to enjoy; and he would have consented to any just measure likely to advance a plan conceived in mature wisdom, and the full and complete execution of which opened before him a prospect of happiness, and a sure way of rendering his name precious to future generations.

It is then by a sort of usurpation of the gratitude of the people, that the National Assembly always speaks of happiness and liberty as conquests which it has obtained. The National Assembly has doubtless wished and effected more than had entered into the views of his majesty: but the first foundations of the constitution, those which form the key-stone of the arch, were laid by the king; to his beneficence are they to be ascribed, and it is to be doubted whether the various sources of power grasped by the National Assembly are favourable to public happiness and true liberty.

The National Assembly also assumes, in my opinion, too much, when it ascribes to itself alone all the merit of the various individual benefits which are included in the circle of its proceedings. A considerable portion of gratitude is certainly due to it: but it is apparent, at the same time, that the reform of the enormous abuses against which public opinion had declared itself, cannot be regarded as the appropriated work of certain individuals; but is rather the inevitable effect of that mass of knowledge existing in twelve hundred persons selected by the nation, in the midst of an age so eminently enlightened. It is easy to calculate what such a combination must produce, but the first merit is due to the having encouraged and stimulated it. Yes, it is there the merit lies, and a merit it is that is unrivalled and unexampled. To the virtuous monarch it belongs, who, by calling around him in great numbers the representatives of the nation, forgot his personal interests, to think only how he could ascertain with certainty the wish of the whole, and consolidate the happiness he was anxious it should enjoy.

Meanwhile, in estimating the work of the National Assembly, and enumerating

its claims to public gratitude, men confound what belongs to the king with what belongs to the assembly, and form from the whole a trophy in honour of the latter. Enough would in my opinion remain with the Assembly, by giving to Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's.

Mr. N. forgets that people who wish to be free, must assert and hold that freedom as from themselves, and not as a boon from a prince.

His speech in the States General next follows; the cold reception a part of this met with seems to have been his first mortification. However, the assistance he received from Mr. Montmorin, of which he speaks highly, greatly cheered him. On the great question between the three orders of the State, he inserts the opinion he gave, which with his remarks on it are as follows.

The king however not wishing to preserve any greater portion of his right than was necessary for the removal of difficulties, I made to the committee of the three orders a proposal of so unexceptionable a nature that I shall transcribe it word for word, without omitting the few sentences of recommendation with which it was accompanied.

"The three orders might, by an act of free and liberal confidence, mutually refer the verification of the powers, in cases where any difficulty arose, and communicate to each other the documents and evidence for the purpose of a rapid and general review.

"They may farther agree:

"That any disputes which might arise should be referred to the examination of a committee selected from the three orders.

"That this committee should make a report of their opinion.

"That this report should be laid before the chambers respectively:

"That if it were approved, it should be considered as final:

"That if, on the contrary, the decision of the orders were in opposition to it, and there was no probability of conciliating the dispute, the business should be referred to the king, whose judgment should be final.

"They might farther agree, that this mode of determining the verification of the powers, should have nothing to do with the grand question of deliberating in common, or in separate orders; they might add that the proceeding adopted

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upon the present occasion should be resumed in the course of the session, to consider if any better mode can be devised as to the future; and they might add any other precautions that might be thought expedient: but let this or some other means of conciliation be adopted, and let not the king be the only person in the nation continually interesting himself in the establishment of peace and unanimity. What true citizen can refuse to comply with the wishes of the best of kings, who sees with the deepest concern the many calamities that may arise from dissensions in the first step of a career to which the welfare of the state calls you, in which the nation is anxious to see you proceed, and where the greatest dangers encompass you? Alas! could you even accomplish this welfare by variance of opinion and animosities of heart, it would be bought too dear. The king then invites you to take into consideration his proposal, and he earnestly intreats you to give him the satisfaction that will result from your accepting it."

It is difficult to conceive how so rational a proposition, made in so becoming a manner, in which the king no farther interfered than was necessary to conciliate the minds of the representatives, could be rejected. That the deputies of the commons, conscious of the power with which public opinion had invested them, should see with pleasure the refusal of the Noblesse and clergy, is not to be wondered at; but that the two higher orders should not have felt the propriety of setting an example of deference to the conciliatory views of the king, a deference that, at this critical period, would have been followed by that of the commons, is a degree of impolicy that cannot well be explained. How many reasons had they for pursuing a different conduct! It was a mere punctilio that prevented them; but this punctilio was not less the cause of the breaking up of the conferences, a circumstance to which a considerable series of events may be imputed.

An assembly of men met together for public affairs, offers to the mind of the spectator a variety of reflections. I believe that a set of negotiators, brought together for the purpose of adjusting a controversy, can scarcely be expected to agree when they are merely the representatives of representatives; and such was the committee appointed by the national deputies. There is need somewhere of a centre of communication to harmonize the feelings; there is need, either in the elector or the elected, of some general medium for reconciling distant interests, vague ideas, and prospects of the future, since in the war of the passions it is only by future and not by im-

ments

mentary interests, that they can be reconciled and united.

The success of the *Tiers Etat* or Commons in their claim, induced Mr. N. to advise concessions on the part of the king and the nobles, but not succeeding, he determined to resign, which he soon after did. He received a letter from the king to withdraw himself without noise; this order came at three o'clock, and at half past five he set out. While on his journey, he received the well known letter of recall from the king and national assembly, on which he immediately returned: this return, which he declares was from an affection to France only, has by his enemies been ascribed to personal considerations. The compliments paid him by the national assembly, and the pardon granted to all persons at his suggestion and request, do him infinite honour.

The repeal of this pardon was brought about by the intrigues of the Democrats, with whom Mr. Neckar seems to be greatly at enmity. The National Assembly are also in general the object of his censures; and he enters into a detail of the finances, to shew in what part he thinks their conduct wrong.

His conduct respecting the *veto* must be laid before the reader at large.

Let us examine how I acted in that most dismal of all nights, when the few torches which enlightened it were carefully extinguished, from the most despicable of all parsimonious motives, that of ingratitude.

One of the parties into which France is at present divided will perhaps be surprised that I should rank my conduct, at the epocha of the gravest of all discussions, that of the *veto*, among the number of services rendered to the state. Passion must sit in judgement upon all things; and prudence must not shew its face. Let the motives that guided my conduct once more be explained.

The absolute *veto* granted to the king, was supposed or represented to be an impediment to every salutary reform of which the nation was desirous; or at least a political step towards making the establishment of public liberty, and the happiness of France,

dependent on the will of the ministry. Thus considered, it may well be imagined how important the question must appear; and the agitation in Paris, and throughout a great part of the kingdom, was extreme. It was therefore infinitely probable that, had the assembly been reduced to the necessity of deliberating whether the absolute *veto* of the king should be rejected or received, guided by its own feelings or hurried away by public clamour, it would have decided that the royal sanction was not necessary to give validity to laws decreed by the representatives of the nation. But let us suppose a small majority on the contrary side; such a feeble superiority of votes would not have given permanency to a decree of this nature; and the general disposition would have been felt, in the most violent manner, on the first opportunity.

These general circumstances, as generally known, and the particular information which I collected, made me sensible of the necessity there was of a point of conciliation proper to calm this dangerous effervescence, without depriving the king of the means of affording such resistance to the decrees of the National assembly, as the good of the state might require.

It is evident that this last purpose was entirely effected, by reserving to his majesty the power of refusing his sanction to the decrees of the National Assembly, notwithstanding the demands of a first legislature, and the perseverance of a second, though he were obliged to yield to the sense of the nation, in case a third legislature adhered to the sentiment of the two preceding. Such constancy and perseverance of sentiment on the part of the deputies of the nation, can leave no doubt relative to public opinion. And how can it then be imagined that a prudent prince would oppose invincible resistance to a union of sentiments so general and so long supported? If from singularity of character such should be his desire, it were to be wished, for the good of the state, that the constitution should not acknowledge his right.

However, as I carefully shewed in my report to the king on that subject, which report was communicated to the National assembly and printed, there was this grand difference between an absolute *veto* and that of which I furnished the idea; that the latter was of real service, whereas the former would have been reduced to a simple honorary prerogative. It never could be supposed that the king could perpetually impede a law enacted for the public good, and pertinaciously insisted upon by the representatives of the nation: and the dread of awakening irritation, by once refusing the royal sanction, and of exciting universal

universal discontent, would constantly have deterred ministers from formally exerting the prerogative on any occasion. Great souls have been their courage thus to expose their own safety; and such courage would most frequently have been deficient in prudence.

The same cannot be said of the suspending *veto*, as proposed by me. This kind of opposition, contained within just limits, would calm first suspicions, prevent the imagination from running astray, and give the monarch all necessary time to obtain the support of the public. This is all which the chief of a kingdom can want, under such circumstances. He may be compared to a general in a camp; too feeble to sustain an obdurate attack, but strong enough to take time to examine whether auxiliaries can or cannot be brought to his aid.

The king in the English constitution has a right to refuse his consent to bills passed by both houses of parliament, as long as he shall please. But it is generally acknowledged that, were he to exert his right on any important occasion, he would be obliged to dissolve the parliament. And, should a new parliament adopt the principles of the preceding one, the king would be under the absolute necessity of complying; not constitutionally, but in order to prevent the refusal of subsidies, or some other more serious disturbance. This right of rejecting bills is therefore in reality reduced to a kind of royal pomp. His opposition can only be suspensive and temporary; and, for the very reason that its duration is not limited by the constitution, the monarch is necessarily more circumspect in the use of his prerogative. England cites but one example of its having been exerted.

No inconvenience can result from its being a moral impossibility that the king should reject bills presented by parliament; because, parliament being composed of two houses, the deliberations of which are distinct and separate, the risk of an inconsiderate *veto*, on his part, is a danger which does not exist. And one of these houses, that of the lords, watches in a particular manner over the indiscreet attempts which are made on the royal prerogative. But in the French constitution, where there is only one house of parliament, it would be very unfortunate for the state if the royal opposition to all the decrees of the National Assembly, thus constituted, were rendered wholly ineffectual. The only mode of preventing such an inconvenience, was that of fixing the duration of his opposition; that, being considered by the nation as temporary, government might exert it without exciting any dangerous commotion.

I was certain, long before this contest

concerning the *veto*, that the establishment of two houses, especially two houses composed of elements so discordant, would never take place. And it was this foresight which induced me to be the more active in preserving to the king a right of opposition, circumscribed by reasonable limits; and which might not be merely honorary, without the power of application.

These calculations of prudence have been the sport of accident; but the expedients employed to render them so are a new proof in their favour. I will speak the truth; silence would be cowardice. Those who exercise a power, sometimes secretly sometimes openly, over the National Assembly, took umbrage at the effect produced on the public by the reasonable and guarded observations which the council of the king indulged themselves in, relative to some of the resolutions of the Assembly. They foresaw that, by the aid of these observations, government might without danger have recourse to that right of opposition which the constitution had so lately granted the king; and as this did not accord with their absolute will, they felt how necessary it was to clothe the use of the suspensive *veto* in terror, in order to render it ineffectual. They regretted that such a right had been admitted; and, were we delirious of searching into certain mysteries, this reflection would easily be brought to coincide with the project formed to oblige the king to fix his abode at Paris. It was immediately after his arrival at the Thuilleries that he was required to sanction, without reserve, all the resolutions of the tempestuous night of the 4th of August; that they fixed the term of eight days to grant or refuse his sanction to all their decrees without distinction; that they prescribed their laconic formula; and that they indirectly gave the ministers to understand how useless every kind of previous objection would be. By thus depriving the king of every means of aid from the public opinion, and by giving at the same time free course to popular effervescence, all opposition on his part would have been rendered dangerous; and then, far from regretting the imaginary right of an indefinite *veto*, far from reflecting on the too short duration of the right of opposition which was to extend to the calling of a third assembly, ambition would frequently have limited itself to a suspension of a fortnight, or of a month, a delay sufficient to suffer first emotions to cool, when certain decrees should have been presented for the royal sanction.

The National Assembly never certainly intended to act contrary to the prevailing opinion, since in that opinion consisted all its power. The king can at present less effectually

effectually struggle with popular emotion. But public opinion presents a different aspect according to the time given it for consideration, and according to the lights by which it is guided. Thus a suspensive veto, as far as the third assembly, satisfies every precaution which reason can advise, or the good of the state require.

I therefore again repeat, that with two houses of parliament, as in England, the indefinite veto would perhaps be the best; for when the powers are intended to be dormant, that which has the most dazzling appearance is to be preserved. But, where there is but one house of parliament, the suspensive veto, as proposed by me and adopted by the assembly, is, in the opinion of many men of sense, one of the happiest thoughts in the whole constitution.

Were we to give imagination the reins, we certainly might suppose cases, or invent an hypothesis, in which, in despite of the obliquity of three successive assemblies, and the guarantee of the national wish, the law which the monarch might be required to sanction might be contradictory to his opinion. But such suppositions are absolutely chimerical. Beside, it is sufficient that political laws include within themselves all which is probable, all which is morally possible. Peculiar occasions demand peculiar modes of action.

A NARRATIVE OF THE BUILDING, AND A DESCRIPTION OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE EDYSTONE LIGHTHOUSE WITH STONE: *To which is added an Appendix, giving some Account of the Lighthouse on Spurn Point, built upon a Sand.* By John Smeaton, *Civil Engineer*, F. R. S. Folio, pp. 212, 23 Plates, 3 Guineas. Nicol.

THE Edystone Lighthouse has long been an object of attention to the curious; and the public are certainly under obligations to Mr. Smeaton for this truly valuable work, valuable in many points of view: it gratifies the curious, assists the man of science, and raises high the national character for ingenuity.

The lighthouse now standing was finished in 1759: the public then shewed a great desire to be acquaint-

ed with the method of its construction; and the brethren of the Trinity-house requesting that it might be made public, Mr. Smeaton determined to undertake it, but was long prevented by other occupations. However he has at length found leisure to complete it.

The Edystone rock is situated twelve miles and a half from the Ramhead, which is the nearest point of land, and in 30 fathom water, is exposed to the sea's rolling in from the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic Ocean; and from the particular form and position of the rocks, the sea swells over them with dreadful violence, not only in a storm, but when it is smooth, and even then breaks over them in a surprising manner, arising from what the seamen call the *ground swell*.

The rock is a species of hard slate, like the moor-stone of Cornwall, only formed into *laminae*.

The many fatal accidents which had happened to ships, particularly homeward bound, rendered a lighthouse thereon absolutely necessary. The difficulties attending such an undertaking appeared great, if not insuperable; however in 1696, Mr. Winstanly, of Littlebury, boldly undertook it, and was furnished with the necessary powers to execute it. Mr. Winstanly had distinguished himself in a certain branch of the mechanics which has a tendency only to raise wonder and surprize; from him, therefore, we must not expect a design founded on the rules of science. An abridgement of his own narrative will be entertaining.

"This lighthouse was begun in the year 1696, and was more than four years in building; not on account of the magnitude of the work, but from the difficulty and danger in getting forwards and backwards to the place; nothing being or could be left there, for the first two years, but what was most thoroughly affixed to the rock: and though little could be attempted

tempted but in the summer season, yet the weather at times would prove so bad, that for ten or fourteen days together the sea would be so raging about these rocks, that though the weather should seem, and be, almost calm in other places, yet here it would mount, and fly more than 200 feet, and has been found since there was lodgment in the places; and therefore all our work was constantly buried at those times, and exposed to the mercy of the sea.

"The first summer was spent in making twelve holes in the rock, and fastening twelve great irons to hold the work that was to be done afterwards; the rock being so hard, and the time so short to stay, by reason of the tide or weather, the distance from the shore, and the many journeys lost in which there could be no landing at all.

"The next summer was spent in making a solid body, or round pillar, twelve feet high and fourteen feet in diameter; for then we had more time to work, with a little better landing, having some small shelter, and something to hold by.

"The third year the pillar was made good at the foundation from the rock to sixteen feet diameter, and all the work raised, which, to the vane, was eighty feet. Being all finished, with the lantern, and all the rooms that were in it, we ventured to lodge there, soon after Midsummer, for the greater dispatch of the work. But the first night the weather became bad, and so continued, that it was eleven days before any boat could come near us; and not being acquainted with the height of the sea's rising, we were almost all the time drowned with wet, and our provisions in as bad condition, though we worked night and day as much as possible, to make shelter for ourselves.

"The fourth year, finding in the winter the effects which the sea had upon the house, and burying the lantern at times, although sixty feet high, early in the spring I en-

compassed the building with a new work of four feet thick, from the foundation, making all solid for twenty feet, and taking down the upper part, and enlarging the rest in proportion. I raised it forty feet higher than it was at first, and made it as it now appears; and yet the sea in time of storms flies upwards of *one hundred feet above the vane*, and covers half the side of the house and lantern, as if it were under water."

In 1703, Mr. Winstanly visited this building to repair it; and in the dreadful storm in November that year, the whole building, together with Mr. Winstanly and his workmen, were swept away. However, the utility of the structure required it should be immediately replaced; but it was not set about so soon as it ought to have been, for the act to enable the Trinity-house to rebuild it did not pass until 1706. By virtue of this act, the Trinity-house granted a lease to Captain Lovet for ninety-nine years. Upon this foundation Captain Lovet engaged Mr. John Rudyard to be his engineer, and the event has shewn he made a proper choice; though it does not appear that Mr. Rudyard was bred to any mechanical business or scientific profession, being at that time a silk-mercator on Ludgate-hill.

It is not very material now, in what way this gentleman became qualified for the execution; it is sufficient he directed the performance of the work in a masterly manner. He saw the errors of the former building, and avoided them. Instead of a polygon, he chose a circle for the outline, and carried up the elevation in that form. He seems to have adopted ideas the very reverse of his predecessor; for all the unwieldy ornaments at top, the open galleries, the projecting cranes, and other contrivances, more for ornament and pleasure than use, Mr. Rudyard laid totally aside: he saw that, how beautiful soever ornaments might be in themselves, yet when improperly applied, and out of place, by affect-

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ing to shew a taste, they betray ignorance of its true principles.

As nothing would stand on the sloping surface of the rock, without artificial means to stay it, Mr. Rudyard judiciously concluded, that, if the rock was reduced to level bearings, the heavy bodies placed upon it would then have no tendency to slide; and this would be the case even though but imperfectly executed; for the sliding tendency being taken away from those parts that were reduced to a level, the whole would be much more securely retained by the iron bolts, than if, for the retention of the whole, they had depended entirely upon the iron work; as manifestly appears to have been the case with the building of Mr. Winstanly.

This lighthouse was built of wood, and finished in 1708. It continued forty-six years, when, Mr. Smeaton tells us, about two o'clock in the morning of the 2d of December, 1755, when the light-keeper, then upon the watch, went into the lantern to snuff the candles, he found the whole in a smoke, and upon opening the door of the balcony, a flame instantly burst from the inside of the cupola. He immediately endeavoured to alarm his companions; but being in bed, they were not so ready in coming to his assistance as the occasion required.—As there were always some leathern buckets kept in the house, and a tub of water in the lantern, he attempted as speedily as possible to extinguish the fire by throwing water upon the outside cover of the lead. By this time, his comrades approaching, he encouraged them to fetch up water from the sea; but, as the height, at a medium, was seventy feet, this, added to the natural consternation attending such an event, would be the occasion of its being brought up but slowly. In the mean time, the flames, gathering strength every moment, and the poor man having the water to throw full four yards higher than his head, we cannot be surpris-

ed, that, under these difficulties, the fire, instead of being soon extinguished, would increase; and what put a stop to further exertions, was the following circumstance.

As he was looking upward with attention to see the direction and success of the water thrown, a quantity of lead, dissolved by the heat of the flames, suddenly rushed like a torrent from the roof, and fell upon the man's head, face, and shoulders: from this moment he had a violent internal sensation, and imagined that a quantity of the lead had passed his throat, and got into his body. Under these circumstances it is not surprising, says Mr. Smeaton, they ceased from any further exertions to extinguish the fire, and in a state of horror and despair, to adopt the resolution of retiring from room to room, as the fire advanced over their heads.

These persons were however taken off the rock next morning by a boat. The man on whom the lead fell lived twelve days; and when he was opened, eleven ounces of that metal were taken out of his stomach.

Mr. Smeaton was applied to, to erect the third lighthouse. That gentleman soon saw the necessity of building with stone. After laying down his plan, he went to Plymouth, and made his first trip to the Edystone in April, 1757. He was three years in constructing this curious building, which may be described in a few words. The rock, which slopes towards the west, is cut into horizontal steps, into which are dove-tailed, and united by a strong cement, Portland stone and granite. The whole building, for thirty feet from the foundation, is a solid pillar of stones, ingrafted into each other. The building has four rooms, one over the other, and at the top, a gallery and lantern. The whole is 80 feet high, and, since its erection, has stood the fury of the elements without suffering the smallest injury.

The work is ornamented with many plates well executed.

POETRY.

P O E T R Y.

CHLOE ANGLING.

BY

THE LATE SOAME JENYNS, ESQ.

ON yon fair brook's enamell'd side,
Behold, my Chloe stands!
Her angle trembles o'er the tide,
As conscious of her hands.

Calm as the gentle waves appear,
Her thoughts serenely flow,
Calm as the softly breathing air,
That curls the brook below.

Such charms her sparkling eyes disclose,
With such soft pow'r endu'd,
She seems a new-born Venus, rose
From the transparent flood.

From each green bank, and mossy cave,
The scaly race repair,
They sport beneath the chrystal wave,
And kiss her image there.

Here the bright silver eel enroll'd
In shining volumes lies,
There basks the carp, bedropt with gold,
In the sunshine of her eyes.

With hungry pikes, in wanton play
The tim'rous trouts appear;
The hungry pikes forget to prey,
The tim'rous trouts to fear.

With equal haste the thoughtless crew
To the fair tempter fly;
Nor grieve they, whilst her eyes they view,
That by her hand they die.

Thus I too view'd the nymph of late;
Ah, simple fish beware!
Soon will you find my wretched fate,
And struggle in the snare.

But, Fair-one, tho' these toils succeed,
Of conquest be not vain;
Nor think o'er all the scaly breed
Uapunish'd thus to reign.

Remember, in a wat'ry glass
His charms NARCISSUS spy'd,
When for his own bewitching face
The youth despair'd and dy'd.

No more then harmless fish ensnare,
No more such wiles pursue;
Lest, while you baits for them prepare,
Love finds out one for you.

CHLOE HUNTING.

BY THE SAME.

WHILST thousands court fair Chloe's
love,
She fears the dang'rous joy,
But CYNTHIA-like, frequents the groves,
As lovely and as coy.

With the same speed she seeks the hind,
Or hunts the flying hare,
She leaves pursuing swains behind,
To languish and despair.

Oh, strange caprice in thy dear breast,
Whence first this whim began;
To follow thus each worthless beast,
And shun their sovereign man!

Consider, fair, what 'tis you do,
How thus they both must die,
Not surer they, when you pursue,
Than we whene'er you fly.

ON A CLOUD OF LOCUSTS.

FROM TRAVELS THROUGH TARTARY.

Deo plena sunt omnia.

ALL, all is life, as well the dust we tread,
As liquid air, thro' heav'n's vast con-
cave spread;

Or all is death, as diff'rent forms they
wear,

The earth, the waters, or the ambient
air;—

Or why is now the hemisphere o'ercast,
But from the East some pestilential blast,
Charg'd with the seeds of reptiles form'd
afar,

Threatens fair Plenty with destructive war.
Perhaps, where Oxus rolls his stream along,
By low-hung woods, unblest with reed, or
song,

First liv'd the air, impregnate all with
strife,

Or burst the shell, slow creeping into life;
The insect-wing at first might there essay,
Or on the earth begin their humbler
way;

'Till quite matur'd, aloft in air they soar,
And thus the hemisphere is darken'd o'er.
O'er iles and kingdoms pass th' amazing
gloom,

While boding nations tremble at their
doom.

W. HAMILTON R 1

L I N E S

PREFATORY TO SOME

POEMS UPON SACRED SUBJECTS.

B Y

W. HAMILTON REID.

*Non satis; dulcia sunt,
Et quocunque volent, animum auditoris
agant.* Hox.

NOT now the Muse a common off'ring brings,
As when the sipp'd from Heliconian springs,
Or, at her ease with careless eye survey'd
The hoary mountain, or the green-wood glade;
That sweet Magician, Fancy's eye is seal'd
From Tempe's vale, or Arcady's fair field:
Here then we pause;—ere farther we essay,
All eye, all ear should meet a loftier lay;
For lo! the virtues of severer race,
With thoughtful judgment, take their awful place,
From passions curb'd, and vigilance acquire'd,
While growing Hope to Fortitude aspir'd.
Yet vainly these in pleasure's stol'n embrace,
Shall ask a treat from intellectual grace!
From such each blushing beauty here will fly,
'Till pure intentions pierce the yielding sky;
Then may experience feel a kindred flame,
And mutual priv'lege mutual transports claim.
Oh ye, who youth and beauty most admire,
No bigot-hand usurps the hallow'd lyre;
No foe to pleasure here a theme pursues,
'Tis Reason, ravish'd with exalted views
Of brighter spheres, which all its pow'rs engage,
Beauty inspires, and Truth sustains its page!
And sure, ye gay, if beauty wakes your care,
The source of beauty must be more than fair!
Order and harmony, the bands of truth,
And knowledge ever new, the mental spring of youth.

DUNCAN'S WARNING.

BY DR. AIKIN.

AS o'er the heath, amid his steel-clad
Thanes,
The royal Duncan rode in martial pride,
Where, full to view, high-topp'd with
glitt'ring vanes,
Macbeth's strong tow'rs o'erhung the
mountain's side;
In dusky mantle wrapp'd, a grisly form
Rush'd with a giant's stride across his
way:
And thus, while howl'd around the rising
storm,
In hollow thund'ring accents pour'd
dismay.

Stop, O King! thy destin'd course,
Furl thy standard, turn thy horse,
Death besets this onward track,
Come no further, quickly back,

Hear'st thou not the raven's croak?
See'st thou not the blasted oak?
Feel'st thou not the loaded sky?
Read thy danger, King, and fly.

Lo, yon castle's banners glare
Bloody through the troubled air;
Lo, what spectres on the roof
Frowning bid thee stand aloof!

Murder, like an eagle waits
Perch'd above the gloomy gates,
Just in act to pounce his prey;
Come not near,—away! away!

Let not plighted faith beguile;
Honour's semblance, Beauty's smile,
Fierce Ambition's venom'd dart
Rankles in the fest'ring heart.

Treason, arm'd against thy life,
Points his dagger, whets his knife,
Drugs his stupifying bowl,
Steels his unrelenting soul.

Now 'tis time; ere guilty night
Closes round thee, speed thy flight;
If the threshold once be cross'd,
Duncan! thou'rt for ever lost.

On he goes!—resistless fate
Hastes to fill his mortal date:
Cease, ye warnings, vain tho' true,
Murder'd King, adieu! adieu!

THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

HAYMARKET. The disturbance which happened on the opening this theatre, prevented the Prelude being heard

on the first night; but on Saturday, proper means having been taken to point out the entrance to the different parts of the house,

house, the theatre was speedily filled by an audience in perfect good humour, and the curtain drew up without a murmur or a single hiss.

The Prelude, the beginning of which terms on the whimsical incidents attending the removal from Poor Old Drury—such as the lightning being half an hour on its way, a storm of hail being obliged to take shelter under an umbrella, a boy carrying the rock of Gibraltar on his shoulders, with the red hot balls in his pocket. The triumphal car of Alexander the Great being pulled to pieces by a hackney coach, and the coachman telling those who conducted it that he was on his own side of the way, and as for Alexander the Great, he might take the number of his coach if he pleased—was received with great applause:

Mr. Parsons comes forward, and announces his resolution never to laugh or make other people laugh again, but determined, in order to be heard, to play nothing but Tragedy, with such readings as were never before read.

Harlequin applies for employment, and being told, that the Manager is determined to trust to sense and sound for one season, says, that as they may possibly want some assistance, he will favour them with one change gratis, and waving his sword, the scene changes to a most beautiful view of Parnassus and the Temple of Fame, with Apollo and the Muses descending from it, who all come forward, and, in song and recitative, promise their aid to the Company in their new situation.

The Haunted Tower was again performed, with the Devil to Pay. Mrs. Jordan, in Nell, displayed the rich variety of her comic powers, and sung the simple ballad, describing the sudden change of her fortune in a style of the most enchanting expression. The effect was all her own, for she had not the assistance of the orchestra. Moody gave an excellent picture of the Cobler. No disturbance has hap-

pened to impede the performance since, and the audiences seem perfectly satisfied with the additional accommodation they receive in return for their advanced price. Nothing new has appeared at this theatre and at

COVENT-GARDEN only two new performers; one made his first appearance, and we believe his last, in Osmyn, in the Mourning Bride; the other was Mr. Fawcett, son of the actor of that name, belonging to the Drury-lane Company. His style of characters is the same as the late Mr. Edwin, and in Caleb, in She Stoops to Conquer, and Jerry Sneak, in the Mayor of Garratt, has been well received.

The beautiful and superb theatre in the Haymarket, which was originally designed for an opera-house, and is now engaged by the Drury-lane company for two years certain, is perhaps one of the most beautiful places of amusement in Europe. It has on each side five rows of boxes, and in front four rows of boxes, and a spacious gallery, the front of which is semicircular. To give our readers an idea of the size of this theatre, we are informed, that the pit is so spacious as to hold eleven hundred people commodiously, and the gallery upwards of nine hundred; the number of boxes is also very great.

To accommodate this theatre to the purposes of a playhouse, some alteration became necessary. The partitions which are usual between the boxes of an opera-house, are lowered, and the galleries and boxes supported by elegant gilt pillars. The stage is contrasted, and stage doors erected, with boxes over them. There is not any one shilling gallery, and that part of the orchestra which is not wanted for a play-house, is converted into a seat communicating with the boxes. The fronts of the boxes are most elegantly painted with designs, on a blue ground; and, as the house is much better lighted than our theatres usually were, the whole has a most grand effect.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

IN the House of Commons, Wednesday, May 11, Mr. Minchin moved, that the House do now resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House, to consider of a bill for the improvement of the culture of hemp. The Hon. Member said, he did not purpose to detain the Committee long on the obvious advantages this country would derive from the culture of this very necessary article. The safety and prosperity of the country depended much on this article. The legislature, it was true, did not shew itself inattentive to this cir-

cumstance by the acts which had passed, but he was sorry to say that they did not answer the intent. Premiums had been offered for the importation of hemp—eight pounds per ton for a limited time—six pounds and four pounds for limited times. A premium of three-pence a stone had been offered for the cultivation of it in this country. Gentlemen might think that would have the desired effect, but it only served to verify the maxim, that trifling premiums would only produce trifling effects; for what was the return in one year

year? Why, twenty tons; and what the importation in the same period? Twenty-eight thousand tons. It was not his intention to carry the bill through this session; he only wished that the blanks might be filled up, and the discussion of it referred till next session.

The order of the day being moved for the re-commitment of the Quebec Bill, Mr. Hobart took the chair.

Mr. Pitt supposed it would be only necessary to go into those clauses on which in a former debate a difference of opinion seemed to arise.

Mr. Buxey said he should certainly vote against the clause which went to the division of Canada into two provinces, unless he heard some very convincing arguments in support of it.

Mr. Fox had his doubts under the Royal Proclamation in 1763, and the Quebec Act in 1773, how far prerogative was enabled to divide Canada into two provinces.

Mr. Pitt thought it was necessary to examine into that. His Majesty's Royal Proclamation was read, in which it was stated, that those who went to Canada, under the faith of that proclamation, should be indulged with laws which came as near the laws of the mother country as the nature of circumstances would admit. He did not conceive it possible that any objection could be started against the division. Inconveniencies certainly would arise, but in the choice of inconveniencies, it was best to take the least; from custom, manner, habit, and language, it was natural to suppose that the Canadians were attached to the laws of France, which obtained amongst them at present; and it was plain that the American Loyalists, from the circumstances of their migration to that country, would prefer the laws of England. It was the wish, no doubt, that the English laws should prevail; and he thought his Majesty's Ministers had pursued the most effectual step for that purpose.

Mr. Burke joined in this opinion; he thought it was best to give the Canadians Canadian laws, and the English English laws. The former were attached to their own laws from prejudice, custom, language, and education; it was best then to lay hold of this second nature, which was the surest hold, and far preferable to the opinions of those new legislators, who ran into the wildest regions of theory, of which we know as little as we do of the North-West passage, or the extremities of America.

Mr. Pitt protested, that he was happy to find that the Hon. Gentleman was of his opinion.

Mr. Fox said, the local division of the bill pointed out the political division; that is, that it was intended to give the English in the Upper Province the English laws, and the Canadians in the Lower Province the Canadian laws. If this was not the object of the bill, he should be glad to be set right; but, in doing this, were gentlemen fully satisfied that the royal promise contained in the proclamation in 1763 was maintained to those who were allured under the faith of a treaty to settle in Canada, and to embark in the commerce of that country? If any gentleman would take the pains to examine that proclamation, he would be convinced that there were allurements in it, to induce the one and the other, but it was not left to theory, for the fact was, that it had that effect; and it was also another fact, that those who were allured to settle under the faith of that proclamation were very well contented with it.

Mr. Francis wished to know, if the division in question took place, and the English were to be governed by the laws of this country, and the Canadians by their own laws, if it would not lead to perpetuate a French government; and if so, how far that was politic and prudent.

Mr. Pitt said, the object of the present bill was to unite the inhabitants of the two Provinces, in hopes that when the Canadians saw the good effects of the English laws, they would, by degrees, assimilate themselves to them. Did gentlemen wish to force the English laws on a body of people who were ignorant of them, and who preferred laws with which they were acquainted? Time and events, he hoped, would bring about the object of the bill, and under these circumstances, he trusted it would meet the wishes of the majority of that House.

Mr. Sheridan thought it necessary to know how far the bill would be acceptable to those for whose benefit it was professed to be intended, before it was set over to be finally executed. He was surprised to find that the petitions, from which the opinion of some part, at least, of the Canadians, might certainly be learned, had not been noticed by the Hon. Gentleman in framing the bill, or in recommending it to the House. A petition, he understood, had been transmitted by Lord Dorchester in March 1790, and presented by Mr. Limburner, the agent for the Canadians in London, who had an interview with Mr. Grenville upon the subject in April, and another in June, the result of both which were unfavourable to the petitioners.

The contents of this petition he recommended to the serious attention of the Minister.

Minister, and wished that when the bill had been perfected as far as possible by the use of it, a copy should be transmitted to Canada, that the sense of the principal inhabitants might be collected upon it, and Parliament be thus enabled to decide with equity between the wishes of the people and the alleged necessities of government.

Sir J. Sinclair apprehended that there would be a division in the Province, were the present clause to make part of the bill; and therefore moved an amendment, which was agreed to without a division.

The clause for establishing a Legislative Council being read,

Mr. Fox objected to the mode by which it was proposed to be formed. He thought, beyond a doubt, that this Council should be composed of a certain mixture of Monarchic, Aristocratic, and Democratic power, and he was not unwilling to say, that the Aristocratic portion was absolutely necessary to this Province. But how was this Council to be formed? Was resort to be had to family distinction, or to wealth, or to both? If family distinction was unnoticed, one of the barriers against the degradation of vice was taken away, and a very powerful incentive to virtue would be lost. There would also be a degree of injustice in it to individuals; for, he was of opinion, that where the public received advantage, the public ought to show respect.

Mr. Fox recommended, that the Legislative Council should be elected, and that there should be a qualification both for the electors and elected.

This amendment was negatived without a division.

In the House of Commons, Thursday, May 12, the House resolved in a Committee on the farther consideration of the motion for leave to bring in a bill to encourage the growth of hemp; granted a bounty for the culture of hemp at the rate of 6l. per ton, and 20s. for every acre of waste ground converted to this purpose.

Mr. Grey said, it was unnecessary to state the case of those unhappy persons in whose behalf he came forward; those, who were confined in gaol, without either the means of discharging their debts, or the possibility of redeeming them. The bare mention of such distress, sufficiently suggested the necessity of relief. He would therefore move, "That a Committee be appointed to enquire into the effects of imprisonment for debt."

The Attorney-General highly approved of this motion, which tended to embrace the whole mass of information.

A Committee was appointed to enquire into the effects of imprisonment for debt.

In a Committee of the whole House, on

the Quebec bill, proceeded to read the clauses from where they left off last night. On the clause for appointing the returning officers, a short conversation took place between Mr. Fox, Mr. Pitt, Sir John Sinclair, and others; on that appointing the Houses of Assembly for Upper and Lower Canada, it was proposed to fill up the blank, fixing the number of the Assembly for Upper Canada with the word sixteen.

Mr. Fox objected to the number—He contended, that after so much had been said about obtaining a proper aristocracy for that colony, on a former night, they were not now to lose sight of giving it a proper share of democracy likewise, which was allowed on all hands to be requisite if we meant to form a government advantageous for that country; and how sixteen people, in so wide a district, could form a popular Assembly, he was at a loss to find out; and certainly we must be strangely mistaken indeed, if we were to call this mode of giving a popular Assembly to the Province of Canada any resemblance to the British Constitution, which was held out to them as the example that all parties wished to follow in settling their new government. For his part, he considered sixteen as no popular representation at all, and no ways proportioned to the aristocratic body, which he understood it was proposed to give them—he therefore wished to make an amendment, by increasing the number—that part of the Clause passed—and he had the same objection to the number of thirty proposed for the Assembly for Lower Canada, when it was stated that there were ten thousand inhabitants in Upper Canada, and one hundred thousand in the Lower Canada, which he thought a very extraordinary and improper proportion between the electors and the elected, between the people and their representatives.

Mr. Pitt contended, that though there might be such a number of inhabitants, still they were not all to be considered as electors; and likewise stated, that the clause mentioned for Upper Canada a number not less than 16, and for Lower Canada, a number not less than 30; but that the Assemblies were not limited to these numbers, and might at a future period be increased.

The duration of the House of Assembly was fixed for four years, instead of seven, as originally proposed: and the right of appeal, instead of being first to the Privy Council, and then to the House of Lords, was restricted to the Privy Council only.

Mr. Fox objected to the mode of providing for the maintenance of a Protestant Clergy by appropriating a seventh of our future grants of lands; and also to the distinction.

distinction in applying this maintenance in favour of one set of Protestant Clergy in preference to another; and stated his reasons at length, as in his speech on the re-commitment of the Bill. The clause was passed in its original state.

In the house of lords, on Friday May 13, Lord Portchester moved, that copies of the last dispatches respecting the progress of the war in India, might be laid before the house.

Lord Grenville resisted the motion. All the information which was necessary, had appeared through the medium of the public prints, in a letter of Colonel Floyd to an officer of distinction in England; and the reason why that letter did not appear in the Gazette, was because it did not come to England officially. The question was negatived without a division.

In the house of commons, on Friday May 13, the Speaker thought it his duty to mention, that the bill now about to be considered, had originated in the Lords; that it purported to amend and regulate so much of an Act of the 6th of Queen Anne as related to the distribution of rewards for the conviction of felons; that this being a Money Bill, such an alteration had always been deemed an infringement of the rights of the commons, who had been accustomed to resist any law which originated with the lords on the subject; he therefore wished to be directed by the house on the occasion.

A short conversation ensued, after which the further consideration of the bill was postponed till this day three months.

The Master of the Rolls, after stating a variety of frauds which had been committed in consequence of the imperfection of the law relating to rewards for the conviction of felons, recommended to the house to sanction a bill, empowering the Judges to decide on the merits of the convictions.

1. That leave be given to bring in a bill to regulate the distribution of rewards for the conviction of felons. Ordered.

2. That leave be given to bring in a bill to admit those convicted of Petty Larceny as competent evidence. Ordered.

In a committee of Ways and Means, Mr. Hobart in the chair, Mr. Pitt rose to offer his promised resolution concerning promissory notes, receipts, and bills of exchange. The first object respected the alteration on the existing duties; the next object adverted to what these existing duties were:

All bills of exchange, payable on demand, under 10l. incurred only a duty of 3d. which he proposed to alter in the following manner: That although bills not exceeding five guineas should remain at the old duty, yet those from five guineas to thirty pounds should pay a stamp duty of 6d. This regulation was not, however,

meant to extend to bills not payable on demand, which, whether under five guineas or not, were to pay 6d.

Those from 30l. to 50l. the duty of 3d.
50l. to 100l. ———— 1s.

In the last duty, there was no difference from the former, excepting that the sum is now limited from 50l. to 100l. whereas in past periods there was a duty of one shilling only on bills of 50l. and upwards.

Bills of 100l. to 200l. ———— 1s. 6d.
Bills of 200l. and upwards ———— 2s.

Although he might, perhaps, be justified in a farther increase of duties on bills of larger sums, yet that modification was not deemed necessary at present.

On promissory notes, which were payable at two places, and re-issued after being paid at the first; transmitted into the country as remittances; and thus produced the effects of bills of exchange, which are only paid once, consequently materially, injure the revenue, he proposed the following duties;

Those re-issued for five guineas, a duty of sixpence.

From five guineas to 30l. and not exceeding 30l. one shilling.

Notes not having this double stamp were to be prohibited.

In the tax on receipts he would propose an alteration in the third stage. Instead of 4d. a duty of 6d. should be imposed on all receipts exceeding 50l.

He then made some allusions to the manner in which the receipt tax had been evaded; said that it was intended to bring forward certain regulations for the prevention of those frauds in future; but what that plan was he did not now mean to explain. He concluded by the usual motion, that the old duties should cease; and proposed certain resolutions, in the manner already described, for the increase of those duties.

In the house of commons on Wednesday May 18, The Chancellor of the Exchequer presented a message from the King, viz.

“GEORGE R.

“His Majesty finding that the additional charges incurred on account of the establishments of the younger branches of the Royal Family, cannot be defrayed out of the monies applicable to the purposes of his Majesty's civil government, is under the necessity of desiring the assistance of Parliament for this purpose, and his Majesty relies on the affections of his faithful commons that they will make such provision as the circumstances may appear to them to require.”

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved, That the said message be taken into consideration on Friday next, and that it be referred to the committee of supply.

On the motion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the House resolved into a Committee of the whole House, to consider of ways and means for raising the supplies granted to his Majesty, Mr. Hobart in the chair. The several accounts of income and expenditure that had been presented to the House, and also the report of the Finance Committee, were referred to the said Committee. The Chancellor of the Exchequer then observed, that he should have the honour of laying before the Committee in as short and distinct a manner as he could, the articles of expenditure, and of Ways and Means, of the present year, separating from them the sum of 3,133,000*l.* which had been separately voted for the expense of the armament of last summer, and also for defraying the expense of 6000 seamen. These he wished to leave out of this consideration, for the sake of confining the attention of the Committee to the other articles which he conceived necessary to lay before them.

The first head of expence was the Navy, and here he should only consider the expence of 18,000 seamen, the additional 6000 having been formerly provided for: Expences of 18,000 Seamen £. 936,000
Ordnance of the Navy - 689,000
Repairs of the Navy - 506,000

Total - 2,131,000

A R M Y.

The sum for the Army amounted to 1,853,000

ORDNANCE.

The various sums for the Ordnance, amounted to 443,000

Deficiency of Land and Malt, to be provided for out of the Supply - 400,000

Deficiency of Grants - 207,000

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES.

Somerset House - 25,000

African Forts - 13,000

New Corps in Botany Bay - 2,000

Compensation to Persons settling American Claims - 2,000

Dey of Algiers - 6,000

Various Charges from the Civil List - 213,000

American Commissioners, further sum - 14,000

For Convicts transported to Botany Bay - 83,000

For Auditors of Public Accounts - 4,000

To Commissioners of Land Revenue - 4,000

To sundries - 8,000

To Messrs. Eyre and Strahan, for printing - 16,000

To American Sufferers - 172,000

Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. - 14,000

Annuity to the Duke of Clarence - 12,000

To be charged to the consolidated fund - 6,000

Total - 594,000

Navy as before stated - 2,131,000
Army - 1,853,000
Ordnance - 443,000
Deficiency of Land and Malt - 400,000
Deficiency of Grants - 207,000

Sum total of the Supplies 5,718,000

WAYS AND MEANS.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, he should next proceed to consider of Ways and Means, for raising this supply of five millions.

He calculated the land and malt,

as usual, at 2,750,000

Surplus of last year's taxes - 303,000

Amount of the lottery - 306,000

Growing produce of the consolidated fund for the next twelve

months, taken on an average

of the last three years - 2,110,000

Balance of accounts - 154,000

Taxes of 1789, tobacco regulations, &c. - 120,000

5,743,000

From this sum is to be deducted three quarters annuity to the Duke of Clarence - 9,000

Total - 5,734,000

By comparing the sum total of the supplies with the sum total of the Ways and Means, it would be seen that the last exceeded the first by the sum of six thousand pounds.

He knew nothing more that was necessary for him to add on the subject, and did not think it necessary to detain the Committee any farther by going into a discussion of the state of our finances. They had received a very able and accurate report from the Committee that was appointed to enquire into that subject, and they would have an opportunity of considering this subject by itself much better than they would on the present occasion. He had no doubt but that every gentleman would examine very attentively the nature and contents of that report, and he flattered himself that no one would examine it without a great degree of satisfaction.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer concluded with moving agreeably to the above statements.

Mr. Sheridan agreed with Mr. Pitt in the encomium he paid to the last Revenue Committee. He was sensible of the difficulties of their task, and of the great expedition with which, as far as in them lay, they accomplished it; but however, from their report, and from what he had just heard, he must draw the most unfavourable conclusions, for it had only served to fortify the opinion he had long entertained on the subject, viz. the ill administration of the finances, and the determinations

mination of Ministers to increase the expenses in proportion as the income had encreased. However, he did not mean then to trouble the Committee long, hoping that a day would be set apart for the particular investigation of subjects of so great importance. The happy period, 1791, had arrived, in which the favorable predictions of the Committee of 1786 were to be established. The statements even of the Right Hon. Gentleman opposite to him, clearly evinced the fallacy of these calculations. The principal points which had appeared from these statements, and what the general tenor of his arguments went to establish, were, that the ordinary peace establishment had, in the present year, and was likely to be, increased very near half a million since the Committee of 1786 made their report. Nor did he think the reasons of such increase were satisfactory. In a line of general assertion, intermixed with some statement, he declared the report of the Committee of 1786 to be fallacious, the prodigality of government to be excessive, and that the present state of the finances wore the most unfavourable aspect.

Mr. Pitt replied.

The resolutions which were moved by the Chancellor of the Exchequer were put and agreed to.

In the House of Commons, Thursday, May 19, Mr. M. Angelo Taylor wished to know if it was intended to make any provision for the Dukes of Cumberland, suitable to the rank of that illustrious personage.

Mr. Pitt replied, that he had no such communication from his Majesty, and that, under such a circumstance, he did not think himself warranted to propose any thing.

Mr. Benfield said, he rose to pay that tribute of approbation to the candour and exertions of the Committee of Finance to which he thought they were entitled, and to the Right Hon. the Chancellor of the Exchequer, for his readiness in appointing them; but he thought it would be still more satisfactory if they had set down the unfunded as well as the funded debt; we should look our affairs in the face, and be made perfectly acquainted with our real situation.

Mr. Dudley Ryder answered, that the unfunded debts were expressly stated in the report.

In the house of commons, on Friday May 20, Mr. Fox rose to make his promised motion for the house to resolve itself into a grand committee on the courts of justice. In bringing this business before the house he did not expect to have it imputed to him that he meant to charge any thing faulty in the administration of justice, when it was only his intention to complain of defects which had crept into the

courts, and which in his opinion required the interference and correction of that house, to render stronger measures unnecessary. He said, he should on that day bring more than one point forward, the first would however be, what he considered the most important, namely, the conduct of the courts on trials for libels. Whoever, he said, made an observation on the improvement of the world, and on the general spreading of science, must acknowledge that it was owing to the diffusion of the liberty of the press, for which he declared himself to be a warm advocate, though he was not a defender of its licentiousness. He declared himself to be against all previous restraints, and observed that in those times when men were found unwise enough to lay on such restraints, they were found only to operate as a check on the real liberty of the press, but could never prevent its licentiousness. The right honourable gentleman then entered particularly into the case of Mr. Lufford, sentenced to a year's imprisonment, and the pillory, for a paragraph in the Herald, a sentence he declared to be inordinately severe. Having gone through this case, arguing that the paragraph was not libellous in the manner stated, he went into the consideration of who should be the judges of the innuendoes and inferences stated to be contained in the libel, the judge or the jury. — He contended that the jury ought to decide on both points; for, if a plain man on a jury was capable of distinguishing the words of the innuendo in a libel, he would certainly be capable of drawing every inference of fact from facts; for it would be strange indeed to tell him he was able to make out an innuendo, though from that innuendo he was to be told that he could draw no inference. He quoted a considerable number of precedents to establish the doctrine of the right of a jury to decide on law and fact, reprobating it as beneath the proud function of an Englishman to give a verdict of guilty, before an enquiry was made to prove that guilt, and thereby leave it to a future enquiry to be instituted to find whether that which was voted to be a libel contained the requisites to render it such, or whether it might not be innocent, or even meritorious. — The next point he wished to fix the attention of gentlemen in was the proceedings of the King's Bench on Quo Warranto proceedings, which some were of opinion the judges had a discretionary power to issue, upon different applications: for this however, but on what right he knew not, the Court of King's Bench during the time of the late venerable and worthy Chief Justice, had laid down a rule that no Quo Warranto information should be issued against a Corporation of twenty years standing, and the present court

might had lowered that term to fix; this alteration he objected to, as having been made retrospectively instead of prospectively, by which those who had trusted to the former rule might have been deprived of the means to proceed against those whom they knew they had sufficient time for, according to the former rule. He next observed upon this subject, that the Attorney General, by virtue of his office, had a right at all times to issue a *Quo Warranto*, the consequence of which might be, in cases of contested elections, that an administration might disfranchise those who voted against them, by their *Quo Warranto* proceedings, though those that voted for government might be equally illegal corporations, whom however it might not be in the power of those who wished it, to disfranchise, they probably having been six years corporators. He wished therefore either to take away the right from the Attorney General, or to limit it in the same way as it was limited in the King's Bench. He considered the two main springs of the constitution to be the representation of the people, and the right of their trial by jury; if any other part of the constitution should be injured, it might be remedied, but if the main springs were destroyed, the whole fabric might crumble to ruin. He concluded by moving that the grand committee on courts of justice do sit on Tuesday, to consider the doctrine of libels, and the proceedings in cases of *Quo Warranto*.

Mr. Erskine seconded the motion.

The Attorney General agreed that some measure ought to be adopted; he could not however agree to the sitting of the grand committee, as that would induce the people to imagine that the conduct of the judges was censurable.

Mr. Jekyll wished the motion to be agreed to for the house to resolve itself into a grand committee, which could not, after what had been said, be considered as in any way reflecting on the judges.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer hoped there would be no difference of opinion on the general subject before them, and that no difference might be sought in the mode for obtaining an object desirable to all. He declared that, as far as he had considered the subject, he fully agreed, with what had been so ably stated by the Right Hon. gentlemen on the province and duty of a jurymen; with them he also declared his opinion to have been in opposition to the practice for a long time followed in the Courts. He was again going into the Committee, conceiving the question not to be what has been law, but what shall in future be the law.

Mr. Fox withdrew his motion, and afterwards moved, "for leave to bring in a bill to remove all doubts respecting the rights and functions of Juries in criminal cases." And, "For leave to bring in a bill to explain and amend the *Quo Warranto Act*."

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Constantinople, August 22.

THE plague continues here with no material variation, but is entirely ceased at Smyrna and Salonica, where the shipping are again provided with clean bills of health.

Madrid, Aug. 22. The siege of Oran is pushed with redoubled vigour. Three foreign vessels lately entered a neighbouring port, where they landed many cannon, and a considerable quantity of powder, balls, &c. for the use of the Moors; which implies a want of vigilance in the Spanish Squadron appointed to cruise in that latitude.

The Cordon of the Pyrenees has been considerably reinforced, particularly in Catalonia, where General Lacy seems to apprehend some unpleasant consequences from a dissatisfaction apparent among the inhabitants. It is, however, to be remarked, that they are far from being favourable to the French, whom they call vile Lutherans.

The French king has sent official notice to all the Courts of Europe of his formal

and voluntary acceptance of the Constitution. The people of Paris seem not only satisfied of the sincerity of his Majesty's intentions, but it is quite become the ton to forget his preceding attempts, in the full persuasion that he was always in himself well inclined to a change of Government in favour of liberty, except when led astray by the Aristocrats.

Bohemia, Sept. 4. The homage of the kingdom took place in the following manner.

About nine o'clock in the forenoon, his Majesty went from his apartments to the Court Chapel in the Oratory, preceded by pages, the States of Bohemia and Moravia, the Clergy, Chamberlain, and Privy Counsellors. These were followed by the *Gist Maitre d' Hotel*, and the Upper Lord Marshal, bearing a naked sword before his Majesty, who came next in the procession, with his hat on, attended by the Captain of the Guards.

The Emperor being arrived in the Oratory, the Upper Lord Marshal put the sword on a table, covered with red velvet, During

During the High Mass, the Book of the Gospel was given to his Majesty to kiss.

After High Mass, the Upper Lord-Marshal took the sword again from the table, and his Majesty, attended by the same retinue, went to the Great Hall, where there was a throne two steps high, on which was a richly decorated arm-chair. His Majesty sat down with his head covered. Opposite the throne a chair was erected, from which the hereditary homage was read, in the Bohemian and German languages. The Bohemian oath was first read, and then the German.

The Secular States held up three fingers of the right hand, and the Spiritual put their right hand on their bosom.

After the oath, the States thanked His Majesty with a low bow; upon which His Majesty rose from the throne and went with the same attendance to his apartments.

Warsaw, Sep. 7. A few days since the Bailly de Cuber had an audience of his Polish Majesty, and presented to him his credentials as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from the Court of Madrid, in the room of M. de Normandez.

Vienna, Sept. 7. The ratifications of the treaty of peace, and of the convention between his Imperial Majesty and the Ottoman Porte, were exchanged on the 23d. ultimo, at Sissove, by the Austrian and Turkish plenipotentiaries, in due form. And on the 5th instant Sir Robert Murray Keith, his Britannick Majesty's plenipotentiary at the above Congress, returned to this city.

Frankfort, Sept. 10. Their Imperial Majesties made their entrance into Prague on the 31st of August. They alighted in the Court of the Chapel of St. Adalbert, where the Archbishop pronounced a discourse in Latin, to which his Majesty replied in the same tongue. Their Majesties having kneeled down, kissed the cross presented to the Church by Charles the Fourth, which was presented to them by the Archbishop. After this ceremony their Majesties proceeded to the church, and from thence to the castle.

Paris, Sept. 14. This morning his Most Christian Majesty came to the national Assembly in his state coach, attended by his Ministers, and having taken the oath prescribed by the new Constitution, he returned to the Palace of the Thuilleries, through the Garden, on foot, attended by the Members of the Assembly.

A general illumination and other rejoicings have taken place throughout the city on the occasion.

Extract of a Letter from Paris, Sept. 15.

"The grand event is past, and the Constitution of France has received the signature of the King. The anxiety of the public to be present at the ceremony was

so great, that hundreds remained all night in the Hall of the Assembly. When I went at seven o'clock in the morning, I found all the galleries full to overflowing; but I was, by good interest, and the friendship of the commissioner, fortunate enough to get a place in the Tribune of Suppliants, exactly opposite to the President, and not more than ten or twelve yards distant; so that I commanded a full view of the scene. Such of the members of the new legislature as had arrived in town, were placed on the heretofore vacant benches of the *party droit*, and the politeness of the Assembly yielded to the eager curiosity of the people, by admitting numbers of foreigners, and others, to seats in the body of the Assembly—in all there could not be fewer than 3000 strangers present. The box set apart for the *Journal of the Logographe*, close to the President's chair, was on this occasion fitted up for the Queen, the Prince Royal, Madame Royal, and the ladies who attended them. The writers for this valuable Journal were accommodated with places for the day in the body of the Hall; for so properly attentive is the Assembly to the true interests of the people, that, for the sake of publishing correct accounts of the proceedings, the respectable Papers have bureaus and places allotted to them, that they may write the accounts on the spot.

"At twelve o'clock precisely they prepared the Assembly for the Royal Session. The table of the Secretaries had been removed from the platform, and was placed on the ground, just before the Bar. The President's table, and ordinary chair, were now removed, and a carpet, of a purple ground, embroidered with *flour-de-lis* in gold, was spread over part of the elevated platform to the left. A chair of the same colours was placed on this carpet. A chair of the same workmanship, but the ground blue, and the *flours-de-lis* not so numerous embroidered, was placed to the right of the carpet for the President. The left hand is the place of honour, and in this way the chair was placed for the King. The two chairs were of equal height, and there was no foot-stool or cushion for that of the King.

"His Majesty was dressed in a *pourpoint* suit embroidered in colours, without regalia, and with only the order of St. Louis at his button-hole. He held a paper in his hand. On his ascending the five steps of the platform, on which his chair was placed, he began instantly to read, without sitting down, and without any previous ceremony, his speech.

Sept. 19. "The National Feast of yesterday was the grandest scene of joy that ever witnessed. It had all the requisites of true magnificence—grandeur of simplicity of manner—and multitude of

There. The soul was filled with the occasion. The hundreds of thousands who assisted in the scene, and who were all animated with the same ecstacy, gave to the spectacle an interest which it is impossible to describe. The day was bright and cool, and from morning till midnight three-fourths of the inhabitants of Paris were abroad.—There was no drunkenness, no outrage—and no disaster. There is a harmless character in French mirth which we in England would seek in vain to find. It has no grossness and no mischief. The lowest rabble in France would disdain the disgusting pastime of Greenwich Park. It is no part of their pleasure to pelt one another with dead cats.

The ceremony of the Proclamation of the constitution commenced at nine o'clock. A body of national horse led the procession—two regiments of foot followed, in ranks of fifteen abreast—two regiments formed, three abreast, in opposite columns, and left a wide space in the midst for the Mayor of Paris and the Municipal Corps, with a numerous band of musicians—and the procession was closed by two regiments, fifteen abreast, and a body of horse. The Proclamation was made by a Municipal officer—first—opposite to the Hotel de Ville—next in the Carrousal, opposite to the palace of the Thuilleries—next at the gate of the Feuillans, which leads to the National Assembly—fourthly, in the Square of Louis XV. and the procession then crossed the New Bridge of Louis XV. and proceeded to the Field of Federation. Thither all the bodies invited to assist in the ceremony had previously repaired, and had taken their places, opposite to the Altar of the Nation, which was ornamented nearly in the same manner as on the 14th of July last.

Paris, Sept. 21. The following are the terms in which the general amnesty, with respect to the events of the Revolution, was decreed:

The National Assembly, considering that the object of the French Revolution was to give a Constitution to the Empire, and that therefore the Revolution ought to end at the period when it has received his Majesty's acceptance:

Considering that, by how much the more culpable it will henceforth be to resist the constituted authorities, so much the more honourable it will be to forget those marks of opposition testified against the general will; and that the time hath at length arrived when dissensions ought to be extinguished by a general sentiment of patriotism and of fraternity for each other, and affection for the Monarch, who has himself given the example of this generous oblivion:—It is decreed—

Art. 1. That all prosecutions, judgments, and proceedings, which have the Revolution for their object, shall be irrevocably abolished.

Art. 2. No officer of the police, judge, &c. shall commence any fresh prosecution.

Art. 3. The King shall be requested to order the Minister of Justice to draw up a list of those at present confined on account of the Revolution.

Art. 4. That a general amnesty shall take place in regard to all military men, accused or convicted of military offences since the 1st of June, 1789.

Art. 5. There shall no longer be occasion for any passports, the use of which was only adopted during a troublesome period; and every French citizen is hereby empowered to enter or leave the kingdom, according to his inclinations.

Vienna, Sept. 23. On the 17th of this month the Deputies from the States of Bohemia had a solemn audience of their Majesties, during which they presented to the Emperor, in a golden plate, the usual gift of 100,000 florins, and 70,000 ducats to her Majesty the Empress.

Berlin, Oct. 4. On Saturday last the marriage of her Royal Highness Princess Wilhelmina of Prussia, with his Serene Highness the Hereditary Prince of Orange was solemnized with the same state as that of his Royal Highness the Duke of York with the Princess Frederica of Prussia.

Hague, Oct. 4. We learn from Petersburg, that the Empress of Russia has desired the French Ambassador to quit that Court; and the last letters from Madrid mention, that the King of Spain has forbid the Parisian Minister from appearing at that Court.

It is generally imagined that Russia, in conjunction with Sweden, will make a vigorous attempt in favour of the Aristocratic party in France, in which they will most likely be joined by the Emperor, and probably by other Powers, either in the field or the Cabinet; in short, the moment seems approaching for the Powers of Europe to unite in endeavouring to restore energy to the Government of France, and consequent tranquility and prosperity to its inhabitants.

Paris, Oct. 14. The Protestants had yesterday a solemn thanksgiving in the church of St. Thomas du Louvre, for the completion of the Constitution. The Municipality and the Directory of Paris attended. Before the sermon, which was preached by M. Morton, an hymn was sung, consisting of verses selected from the works of various poets, and passages from the psalms, so arranged as to have all the appearance of a regular composition. The whole service was conducted with equal majesty and devotion. It was truly gratifying to observe

serve sincere Catholics join in praising God with Protestants, whom their deluded ancestors would have thought it doing God service to burn. Surely we must admit, that Christians of different sects must have been incited to persecute and murder one another by the interested delusions of their religious pastors, or the absurd institution of their political rulers, for where they are left to the honest suggestions of their own hearts, we find them tolerant, charitable, and strongly impelled to mutual love.

SCOTLAND.

Edinburgh, Oct. 10. The wind blew very hard all last night from N. E. accompanied with a very heavy fall of rain, which caused a great spate in the harbour. A number of vessels broke from their moorings, but luckily no material damage was done to the shipping, except amongst the boats, some of which were driven out of the harbour, and others sunk and otherwise damaged. At present the square lighter for cleaning the harbour lies under the bottom of one of the sloops, occasioned by the heavy spate.

Glasgow, Oct. 11. In consequence of very heavy rains which we had for the two preceding days, the river Clyde yesterday overflowed its banks, and rose to such a height as to lay all the lower part of this city several feet under water. The furniture and goods in the houses which the water reached have been very much damaged; and as the harvest is not yet quite got in in this country, great quantities of cut corn have been swept away by the lands overflowed by the river.

The water rose so high as to reach the cells of the Mad-house. The instantaneous effect which the dread of the water had upon the lunatics was very remarkable—the whole of them, even the most furious, were rendered quiet and tractable, and allowed themselves, trembling like children, to be conducted to apartments on the upper story, where they remained calm and peaceable, as long as the Court-yard remained covered by the water.

MARRIED.

The Right Hon. Lord Grantley, to Miss Midgley, eldest daughter of the late Jonathan Midgley, Esq. of Beverley, in Yorkshire, and niece to the late Lady Denison.

Sir John Peter, his Majesty's Consul in the Austrian Netherlands, to Miss Parker, eldest daughter of John Parker, Esq. of Mulwell Hill, banker in London.

R. Curling, Esq. of Sandwich, to Miss Harvey, daughter of John Harvey, Esq. one of the Captains in the fleet under Lord Rodney at the capture of St. Eustatia.

At Norwich, William Utten, Esq. Secretary to the Lord Bishop of that diocese, to Miss Leach.

At Bedford, John Foster, Esq. to Miss Margaret Place, daughter of the late Thomas Place, Esq. of Green Hamerton, Yorkshire.

Charles Lisle, Esq. one of the Representatives for the county of Monaghan, Ireland, to Miss Ryder, of Merion Square, Dublin.

Timothy Shelly, Esq. Member for Horsham, to Miss Pilsford, of West Grinstead.

Joseph Howgate, of Norwood House, Hertfordshire, Esq. to Miss Price, of Fleet Street.

At Exeter, William Paget, M. D. to Miss Doubleday, daughter of the late Robert Doubleday, Esq.

Rev. Wm. Sneyd, to Miss Emma Vernon, daughter of the late Thomas Vernon, Esq. of Hanbury, Worcestershire.

George Poore, Esq. of Portsmouth, to Miss Naomi Collins, daughter of Daniel Collins, Esq. of Egypt, near Cowes.

Wm. Brander, Esq. of Morden Hall, Surrey, to Miss Barnett, of Vauxhall.

At Gretna Green, Mr. George Fletcher, ship chandler and iron founder, of Hull, to Miss Akeleye, daughter in law to Wm. Herbert, Esq. of Scarborough.

Lieutenant J. Gilfillan, to Miss Eliza Bridge, of Dover Street.

Rev. Samuel Hoole, M. A. son of Mr. John Hoole, late of the East India House, to Miss Eliza Young, daughter of Arthur Young, Esq. of Bradfield Hall, Suffolk.

Charles Granville Stuart Montebau, Esq. of Closeburn, to Miss Ludivina Loughman, eldest daughter of Thos. Loughman, Esq. merchant, in London.

At Epsom, in Surrey, the Rev. Joseph Thomas, late Chaplain of his Majesty's ship Vanguard, to Miss Parkhurst, daughter of the Rev. John Parkhurst, of Epsom.

Thomas Donaldson, Esq. of Chiswick, in Durham, late a Captain in the 31st regiment, to Miss Selby, sister of H. C. Selby, Esq. of Swansfield, Northumberland.

The Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Cork, to Miss Mapletost, daughter to the Hon. Mrs. Mapletost.

At Margate, John Stewart, Esq. a Captain in the late Cinque Port corps of infantry, to Miss M. Staines, of Dandelion.

Dr. George Moncrieff, physician at Perth, to Miss Janet Lyon, daughter of the Rev. Mr. George Lyon, of Ogle, Minister of that parish.

G. Bullrode Esq. of Worcester, to Miss Bullrode, of Dover, only daughter of Capt. Bullrode, of the Navy.

At St. Andrew's, Mr. Kinderley, of Symond's Inn, to Mrs. Brishowe Burnell, of Chancery Lane.

At Stoke, near Cobham, in Surrey, Mr. Rhodes, of Falcon Square, to Miss Stanforth, of Blackfriar's road.

At Shifnal, Shropshire, the Rev. John Heptinstall, to Miss Sambrooke.

John Ph. de Gruchy, Esq. of Fenchurch Street, to Miss C. Grant, of Portsmouth.

John Bute, Esq. of Bedford Row, to Miss Freeman, of Bartholomew Close.

Jakes Coulson, Esq. of Westbrom House, to Miss Kinleside, of Wigmore, in Kent.

Mr. Francis Ponti, of Pall Mall, to Miss Mary Touffaint, of Sackville Street.

Charles Mohon, of Upper Thames Street, to Miss Sarah Martin, of Moulsey.

At St. George's, Hanover Square, John Mathers, Esq. of Petty France, Westminster, to Miss Ann Wood, of Queen Ann Street West, daughter of John Wood, Esq. of Rochester.

George Harrison, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, to Miss Bunting, of Middleton Lodge, Richmond, Yorkshire.

John Hooper, Esq. of Yeovill, Somersetshire, to Miss Parsons, eldest daughter of the Rev. F. C. Parsons, of that place.

At Storrington, Sussex, by the Rev. Joseph Baily, Henry Jackson, Esq. of Mark Lane, to Miss Harriet Bishopp, second daughter to Harry Bishopp, Esq.

At Charlton, Mr. Martin Lindsay, of that place, to Miss Wood, daughter of the late Dr. Robert Wood, Physician in Perth.

At Knareborough, Yorkshire, the Rev. John Robinson, M. A. Minister of Stayley Bridge, Lancashire, to Miss D. Buck, of Knareborough.

Mr. Geo. Ellison, attorney, Crane Court, Fleet Street, to Miss Mary Nares, of James Street, Westminster.

In Kingston, Jamaica, A. M. Belisano, Esq. to Miss Esther Lindo, daughter of Alexander Lindo, Esq.

Colonel Greville, of the Guards, to Miss Graham, sister to Sir Bellingham Graham, Bart.

Wm. Scott Moncrieff, merchant, in Glasgow, to Miss Elizabeth Hogg, daughter of the deceased Thomas Hogg, merchant in Edinburgh.

— Tucker, Esq. M. D. to Miss Wood, second daughter of Mr. Wood, tar merchant.

Captain Nixon, of New Ormond Street, to Miss Isabella Capper, second daughter of R. Capper, Esq. of Bushey, Hertfordshire.

The Rev. James Hodgson, rector of that parish, to Miss Whitcombe, eldest daughter of Robert Whitcombe, of Kingston, in Hertfordshire, Esq.

At Edinburgh, Capt. Thomas Inglis, to Miss Jean Balfour, daughter of the late Henry Balfour, of Dunbog, Esq.

At Llandebrig, in Carnarvonshire, Charles Chester, Esq. second son of the late Robert Chester, Esq. of Curzon Street, May Fair, to Miss Roberts, eldest daughter of the Rev. Archdeacon Roberts.

James Webb, Esq. to Mrs. Newfom, sister of Joseph Newfom, Esq. late one of

his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the county of Middlesex.

Thomas Lodington, Esq. of Lamb's Conduit Street, one of the Secondaries of the Court of Common Pleas, to Miss Day, of New North Street, daughter of the late John Day, Esq. of the island of Antigua.

John Bourke Ryan, Esq. of London, to Mrs. Gossip, relict of the late Wilmet Gossip, Esq. of Thorp-Arch.

Thomas Jordan Hookham, of Old Bond Street, to Miss Holland, of Greek Street, Soho.

Charles Martin, of Mile End, to Miss Wellstead, eldest daughter of George Wellstead, Esq. of the same place.

Rev. Wm. Hughes, A. M. Rector of Pitcheott, in Bucks, to Miss Wykham, of Sulgrave, in Northamptonshire.

At Rosebank, near Aberdeen, Captain William Urquhart, of his Majesty's 30th regiment of foot, to Miss Isabella Rose, only daughter of the deceased Hugh Rose, M. D. of Rosebank, late of South Carolina.

Thomas Sinclair, Esq. of Belfast, Ireland, to Miss Jane Bland, youngest daughter of the late Capt. Bland, and niece to General Bland.

— Devetre, Esq. of Crosby, near Carlisle, to Miss Fawcett, of Scaleby castle, niece to Rowland Stephenson, Esq.

Thomas Sadd, Esq. of Vauxhall, to Miss Anna Maria Footitt, of the same place.

— Cullimore, Esq. of Nine Elms, to Miss Elizabeth Sadd, of Vauxhall.

D I E D:

His Excellency Le Marquis de la Luzerne, Ambassador from France to this Court. He had laboured under diseases for some years, on account of which he drove about to most of the watering places in the kingdom, but in the latter end of July, he found his disorder coming upon him very fast, and, receiving no relief from the Bath waters, resolved to take a tour through England for the air. In this tour he was stopped at Southampton, where he paid the last debt of nature. The palsy had affected him so much, that for some time he was deprived of the use of his legs and right arm, so that he was fed by a nurse, but his Excellency still retained his senses until a few hours before his death. The noble Marquis, a few days before his dissolution, had some apparent symptoms of recovery, the blood having gained circulation in the right shoulder.

Rear Admiral John Harrison, who was first Captain under Sir George Pococke, in all the engagements with the French Admiral

Admiral Monsieur D'Aché, and at the taking of the Hayannah. Soon after which he lost the entire use of one side by a stroke of the palsy; the consequence of excessive fatigues of mind and person, in the arduous service of his Sovereign and his country.

Sir Herbert Mackworth, Bart. His death was occasioned by a thorn that entered his finger, which, not being extracted in time, induced a mortification that proved fatal in a very few days.

John Hart, Esq. Principal Coal Meter for the City of London.

In the 75th year of his age, John Sheppey, Esq. many years Deputy Customs and Collector of the Port of Dublin.

At Edinburgh, John Strachan, flesheadie, in the 105th year of his age. He retained his senses till within a short time of his death, and seldom had any complaint. He recollected the time when no fether would venture to kill any beast till all the different parts were bespoke, butchers meat being then a much more unsaleable article than now.

Edmund Eyre, Esq. son of the late Rev. Archdeacon Eyre, of Lynn, in Norfolk, and nephew to the late Bishop Keene, Lieutenant-Colonel of the 64th regiment of foot, and a Colonel in the army.

At Plymouth Dock, J. A. Pownall, Esq. storekeeper to that yard for many years, and formerly a Naval Officer at Gibraltar.

Knipe Gobbet, Esq. Lieutenant-Colonel of the Western battalion of the Norfolk militia, an Alderman of Norwich, and served the office of Mayor of that city in 1771.

At Blawith, near Ulverstone, Mr. W. Gibson. This extraordinary person, whose skill in the mathematics astonished all who knew him, was a servant at a little farm-house at the age of 21, and ignorant of the rules of common arithmetic; but after learning these, from the children that were taught, on an evening, he soon made himself master of Euclid's elements, algebra, and fluxions, and could multiply together any number of figures, under 9, by mere strength of memory.

At Dieppe, in France, the Lady of William Powell, Esq. of Ringmer, near Lewes, on her return from abroad, where she had been for the recovery of her health.

Mr. Keelty, of Nottingham; he was so corpulent, that eleven men were employed to carry him to his grave; his coffin measured two feet ten inches over the shoulders, and was upwards of twenty inches in depth.

At Thirsk, in the 103d year of her age, Mrs. Wharton, the only surviving daughter of the late Anthony Wharton

Esq. of Gillingwood, in that county, and great aunt to John Wharton, Esq. Member for Beverley, to whom her great estates and property descend.

In Hart-street, Covent-garden, in the 77th year of her age, Mrs. Bennet, formerly of Drury-lane Theatre; she had retired from the stage for several years.

At Woodbury Hall, Cambridgeshire, the Hon. George Lane Parker, brother to the Earl of Macclesfield, and Lieutenant-General in the Army, and Colonel of the 12th regiment of dragoons.

In his 88th year, Mr. Cumberlege, formerly a linen-draper in Newgate-street, and latterly, for many years, a Collector for the New River Company.

At Dublin, William Dunn, Esq. an Alderman of that city.

At Whitehaven, in the 63d year of his age, Mr. John Ware, senior, proprietor and publisher of the Cumberland Packet.

At Farningham, in Kent, the son of John Henry Warre, Esq. of that place.

At Langton Lodge, near Northallerton, Yorkshire, in the 6th year of her age, the eldest daughter of the Right Hon. the Master of the Rolls.

At Birmingham, Thomas Hurd, brother to the Lord Bishop of Worcester.

In Dublin, Theophilus Thomson, Esq. late Deputy Governor of the Bank of Ireland, and Consul General from the Court of Denmark.

At Chichester, Joseph Baker, Esq. one of the oldest Members of that Corporation.

Miss Mary Drury, sister to Mrs. Isaac Robinson, of Doncaster.

At Dunfany-Castle, Ireland, the Lady of the Right Hon. Lord Dunfany.

In Edinburgh, the Right Hon. Lady Elizabeth Hay, sister to the late, and aunt to the present Earl of Kinnoull.

At Winchester, the Rev. Mr. Mulse, Prebendary of that Cathedral, and Rector of Meonstoke and Easton in Hampshire.

At Calais, in his way to Gottingen, of a rapid decline, from the bursting of a blood vessel, Le Gendre Starkie, Esq. of Huntroid, in the county of Lancaster; a gentleman of the strictest honour and probity. He is succeeded by his only son, Le Gendre Pierce Starkie, Esq.

At Broughton, in Lancashire, Mrs. Ann Waters, aged 104. Six months previous to her death, she broke her arm, which was set and healed in a very short time: 150 persons, according to the custom of that country, attended the funeral dinner.

At Brigg, in the county of Lincoln, Miss Bentley, only daughter of George Bently, Esq. of Brigg.

Aged 86, Mrs. Lewis, mother to Mrs. Trapp, printer and bookseller, Paternoster-row.

Mr. Barnes, aged 36, wholesale iron-monger,

ponger, of Tewkesbury. He rode out apparently in good health in the morning, returned about four o'clock perfectly well; but soon afterwards he complained of faintness, sat down, and expired in a few minutes.

At Tavistock, near Barnstable, the Lady of Sir Robert Falk, Bart.

In Lyon's Inn, the Rev. John Free, D. D. Vicar of East Coken, Somersetshire.

Sir John Leman, Lecturer of St. Mary at Hill.

At Edinburgh, the youngest son of the Lord Provost of that city.

In the 80th year of her age, Mrs. Frances Coltman, of Hatton-Garden.

At Carlou, in Ireland, Captain Mark Kerr, of the 9th regiment of dragoons, son of the deceased Robert Kerr, Esq. of Newfield.

At Berwick, Major Bickerton, Town-Major of that garrison.

Lady Dowager Abercromby, of Birkcubog, at Glashaugh, the 31st ult.

At Milbrooke, near Southampton, Mrs. Warren, sister to the late Sir John Hobby Mill, Bart.

Dr. James De Lancey Muirson, eldest son of George Muirson, Esq. late of New York.

At Mount Heaton, in the King's county, Ireland, the Right Hon. John Armstrong, one of his Majesty's Most Hon. Privy Council, and Representative in Parliament for the borough of Kilmallock.

At Mile End, John Marr, Esq.

At Bristol Hot Wells, Miss Fortescue, eldest daughter of the late Right Hon. James Fortescue, Esq. of Ireland, and niece to the Earl of Clermont.

At Rottingdean, the Rev. Richard Cooperthwaite, Rector of Meeching, otherwise Newhaven.

Mrs. Du Bois, wife of John Du Bois, Esq. of New Basinghall-street.

At Rochester, Mr. Thomas Nicholson, Attorney at Law, of Maidstone, and Deputy Clerk of the Peace for the County of Essex.

Rev. Mr. Temple, late Vicar of Ad-dingham, in Cumberland.

The most noble Catharine, Marchioness of Abercorne, daughter of Sir Joseph Copley, Bart. and wife of the present Marquis of Abercorne, to whom her Ladyship was married in June, 1770.

In the 80th year of his age, Lieutenant General John M'Kenzie, Colonel Commandant and Adjutant-General of the Marine forces. He commanded the marines at the capture of Belle-Isle, in 1761, where that corps gained immortal honour by their gallantry and good conduct. The

General (then Lieutenant-Colonel) was severely wounded there.

Aged 66, Mrs. Lateward, widow of the late Mr. Jeremiah Lateward, of Castle-street, Southwark.

In Charles Town, South Carolina, Geo. Abbot Hall, Esq. Collector of the Customs there.

Samuel Hoare, Esq. for many years Jerker of the Customhouse of Cork.

Mrs. Crabb, wife of James Crabb, Esq. of Southampton row, Bloomsbury.

At Hampstead, Mrs. Patrick, wife of Paul Patrick, Esq. of New Broad-street.

At Ferrybridge, in Yorkshires, after a lingering illness, Mrs. Lowe.

At Tawstock House, after a very severe illness, which she bore with exemplary resignation, the Lady of Sir Bouchier Wrey, Bart. and only daughter of Sir Robert Falk.

At Dulwich, James Bulcock, Esq. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace, and Deputy-Lieutenant of the county of Surry, Treasurer of the Surry Dispensary, &c.

James Bennet, Esq. of Walthamstow, Essex.

At Nottingham, Mrs. Drury, relict of the late W. Drury, Esq. of Oakhampton, in Rutlandshire, and mother to W. Drury, of Lock's hall, near Derby, formerly of Nottingham, and whose family have resided there 400 years.

Hon. Thomas Henry Coventry, youngest son of Lord Viscount Deerhurst.

At his seat at Barr, near Birmingham, aged 73, Thomas Hoo, Esq.

Mr. Edward Hall, of Manchester, 38 years one of the surgeons of the Infirmary there.

Mrs. Grymes, lady of Major Grymes, and daughter of the late John Randolph, Esq.

In the 80th year of his age, James Butler, Esq. formerly of Pall-Mall.

John Richardson, Esq. of Mile-End, in the 81st year of his age.

Charles Frewer, Esq. at Clewer, near Windsor.

BANKRUPTS.

George Pitt, of the city of Bristol, haberdasher. John Thomson, of Crown-street, Westminster, Middlesex, picture-dealer. Joseph Gibbons, of the city of Coventry, soap-boiler and tallow-chandler. William Schultz, of Great George-street, in the parish of Christ-church, Surry, apothecary and chymist. William Walker, of the city of Coventry, swaithemaker. John Foster, of the town and county of Newcastle upon Tyne, cooper. Stephen Smith, of the parish of Claines, Worcester, inn-keeper.

N. B. By an unaccountable error of the press, the sheet which should have been paged 285 to 273, is paged 285 to 293.

[illegible]

By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN
Height of the Barometer and Ther-
mometer with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer Inches, and 100th Parts.		Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.		Weather in Oct. 1791.
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock.	
28	29 95	29 99	49	54	Fair
29	30 00	30 00	49	55	47 Ditto
30	29 95	29 81	48	54	43 Ditto
1	29 80	29 73	46	50	49 Ditto
2	29 77	29 74	57	57	55 Ditto
3	29 81	29 74	64	67	59 Rain
4	29 67	29 58	59	60	55 Ditto
5	29 63	29 56	53	63	54 Fair
6	29 53	29 51	57	61	56 Rain
7	29 47	29 50	53	56	40 Fair
8	29 48	29 51	53	58	49 Cloudy
9	29 48	29 00	50	58	50 Rain
10	29 00	29 00	58	60	55 Ditto
11	29 08	29 31	50	55	43 Fair
12	29 47	29 51	31	51	48 Ditto
13	29 46	29 16	41	51	47 Ditto
14	29 00	29 03	49	57	43 Rain
15	29 09	29 11	47	54	43 Fair
16	29 19	29 27	43	51	41 Ditto
17	29 23	29 20	44	58	50 Cloudy
18	29 06	29 20	52	57	52 Rain
19	29 16	29 01	58	56	51 Ditto
20	28 50	28 75	53	59	53 Ditto
21	28 72	28 85	53	56	50 Ditto
22	28 91	29 94	53	57	44 Cloudy
23	29 41	29 60	43	48	36 Fair
24	29 73	29 76	32	39	33 Ditto
25	29 08	29 52	37	49	45 Rain
26	29 35	29 38	47	47	49 Ditto
27	29 62	29 80	43	49	41 Ditto
28	30 09	30 13	42	46	36 Fair

PRICES of CORN,
From Oct. 10. to Oct. 17.

	<i>s.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>s.</i>
Wheat	34	to 43	36	to 43
Rye	23	to 26	24	to 28
Barley	23	to 28	26	to 28
Oats	16	to 19	17	to 20
Beans	27	to 32	27	to 29

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Literary Magazine.



MARIVEAUX.

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